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Developing EST Learners' Pragmatic Competence in Writing Research Abstract
The case of 3rd year Students of Agriculture at UKMO

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this thesis to

My dear parents for their great support, patience and encouragements

To my family: *Nouh, Mouhiddine, Wassila, Fadila, Nadjet, Fatna and Kheira.*

To my *grandfather and grandmother*

To the sweet nephews, *Islam, Isra and Amel*

To the soul of my nephew *M. Ali*

To my fiancé *Djeloul* who helped me in all things great and small

To all my nearest and dearest.

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Abstract

Many pedagogical experiences report the pressing need for a pragmatic competence. In spoken or written mode of communication, being able to use language appropriately in different contexts is an essential ability for language learners. In ESP, where learners are in need to be full members of their discourse community, pragmatic competence turns to be a fundamental requirement. The same can be said about EST writing. The study aims at developing EST learners' pragmatic competence in order to write an effective research article abstract. Two main reasons motivated the present work. The important role that pragmatic competence occupies in EST writing and EST learners' pragmatic failure in performing speech acts. The study, then, intends to seek the effects of pragmatic deficiency on EST learners' writing and for possible ways to make up for such a deficiency. The study proposes that a consciousness-raising approach to teaching pragmatic aspects contributes to develop EST learners' pragmatic competence. It is an approach that exploits the relationship between explicit and implicit types of instruction. By explicit teaching, EST learners will see their pragmatic awareness being built up, while the metapragmatic awareness is attributed to implicit teaching. So, the proposed methodology consists of three stages: the specification of the content, explicit teaching and implicit teaching. As to assess pragmatic competence, the current enquiry relies on the assumption that the clarity of the purpose of assessment will help in selecting adequate tools for assessing EST learners' pragmatic abilities. The study chooses a sample of thirty-four students of 3rd year Agriculture at Kasdi Merbah University. The subjects are required to reply to a questionnaire that aims to define their needs. On the basis of the questionnaire results, subjects are explicitly taught on how to perform the two acts of 'describing' and 'comparing' and are implicitly trained in the norms of scientific discourse community through achieving tasks. Further, the present work adopts a mode of testing that examines students of agriculture current level and measures what they have learnt after the training phase. Findings of the study reveal that students' pragmatic deficiency hinders the learners' abstract writing and results in communication breakdowns. Also, it shows that a consciousness-raising approach to teaching speech acts succeeded to some extent in developing EST learners' pragmatic competence. Drawing on these findings, the study recommends that pragmatic aspects should be a fundamental component in EST course alongside with grammatical, discourse and other components so as to ensure an effective abstract writing.

List of Abbreviations

CCP: Cross-Cultural Pragmatics

CF: Corrective Feedback

CP: Cooperative Principle

DCT: Discourse Completion Task

DF: Degree of Freedom

DRPT: Discourse Role-Play Task

DSAT: Discourse Self-Assessment Task

EBE: English for Business and Economics

EFL: English as Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESAP: English for Specific Academic Purposes

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

ESS: English for Social Science

EST: English for Science and Technology

FFI: Form-Focused Instruction

FL: Foreign Language

ILP: Interlanguage Pragmatics

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

MDCT: Multiple-choice Discourse Completion Task

MT: Mother Tongue

NNS: Non-Native Speaker(s)

NS: Native Speaker(s)

ODCT: Oral Discourse Completion Task

PP: Politeness Principle

R: Range

RA: Research Article

RPSAT: Role-Play Self-Assessment task

SA: Speech Act (s)

SD: Standard Deviation

SL: Second Language

TL: Target Language

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

V: Variance

WDCT: Written Discourse Completion Task

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General Introduction

General Introduction

Formal language studies offered a lot to language learning and teaching (Rose & Kasper, 2001). They treated sentences at the formal level and succeeded to provide many answers to questions asked by linguists such as sentence structure, rules of accuracy and so on. Yet, those studies failed to find adequate answers to cases of communication breakdowns (Thomas, 1983). That is, a speaker who produces grammatically and semantically correct sentences but fails to get his/her message across, finds no explanation within formal analysis framework.

It is by considering language social aspects (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969; Grice, 1979) that non-formal accounts of language appeared in the area of language studies. Language studies began to treat sentences at both the formal and the contextual levels. Pragmatics is concerned with the study of those contextual considerations which affect the use of linguistic items (Leech, 1983). Pragmatics studies the appropriate use of language according to who is talking to whom, when, where, how and for what purpose. There are a number of aspects that are dealt with under pragmatics namely deixis, reference, presupposition, cooperative principle, implicature, politeness, cross-cultural pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatics, speech acts, etc. (Yule, 1996 a).

Failure to use the appropriate form or inability to consider sociolinguistic factors appropriately may lead to misunderstanding and communication impediment (Thomas, 1983). Therefore, being pragmatically competent is a crucial ability either in its spoken form or written one (Troia, 2011). In written communication, for instance, a pragmatically incompetent writer who cannot calculate sociolinguistic factors aptly, such as the social distance between writer and reader, may produce an unclear piece of writing and fails to transfer his/her intended message. ESP writing is no exception, in this connection. Effective writing in ESP entails observing the norms of use within a discourse community in addition to the linguistic proficiency, that is, the ability to select linguistic forms appropriately according to the context. Taking the research article as an illustration of scientific discourse community writing, EST writers need to possess

not only linguistic proficiency but also pragmatic awareness. Even if s/he uses different linguistic forms accurately, an EST writer has to be aware of speech acts, maxims of cooperation, referencing expressions that can be explored to express a particular illocutionary intent and politeness markers used by the members of discourse community use.

Pragmatic deficiency to perform all these aspects in the context of scientific discourse is the main problem that EST learners face in writing research articles (Troia, 2011; Flowerdew, 2013). EST learners are unable to write effective research article abstract because of their inability to perform speech acts appropriately. On these very premises, the present study aims at investigating the effects of pragmatic deficiency on EST learners' writing. Also, it intends to set a methodology that can help EST learners develop their pragmatic awareness. More clearly, the present work plans to search an answer to two main research questions: how can pragmatic failure affect EST writing and how EST learners' pragmatic competence can be developed?

Many studies in pragmatics agree that formal instruction is likely to raise learners' pragmatic awareness (Rose & Kasper, 2001). The teaching of pragmatic aspects in the classroom has proved to be of great benefits in promoting learners' pragmatic competence such as producing appropriate deictic expressions. Taking into consideration these findings, the present inquiry hypothesizes that a consciousness-raising approach to teaching pragmatic aspects both explicitly and implicitly develops EST learners' pragmatic competence. In order to write an effective abstract of a research article, the study proposes that enhancing EST learners' pragmatic abilities, particularly that of fulfilling speech acts appropriately, through teaching these aspects may achieve the goal.

Aiming to refute or confirm hypothesis, the study conducted an experiment on students of Agriculture at Kasdi Merbah University. It adopted the quasi-experimental method, that is, a pre- and post-test were designed to determine the students of agriculture pragmatic gaps and to test

the proposed methodology. While the descriptive method is used to define students' pragmatic needs and to observe their progress and feedback.

The study consists of four chapters. The first chapter identifies the background of the study. An explanation of the methods used, limitations of the study, the rationale are presented in the first chapter. Further, some key concepts are defined at the end of chapter one.

The second chapter deals with pragmatics literature review and its relation with EST writing. Different definitions of the concepts of pragmatics, pragmatic competence and its aspects are introduced. Then, an attempt is made to explain the place that this competence occupies in ESP and EST writing, in general, and in writing scientific research article abstract, in particular.

In order to show the importance of pragmatic competence in EST writing, the issue of pragmatic failure is explored in chapter three. Next, different causes of such a failure are accounted for. This chapter, also, presents the methodology proposed, including an explanation of explicit and implicit types of instruction, the stages of methodology and some tasks that can be used in these stages. At the end of this chapter an assessment component of pragmatic competence is introduced.

Chapter four is devoted to the description of the experiment. It provides a detailed description of the subjects, instruments, the methodology proposed and assessment procedures. The analysis of data, interpretation and discussion of the findings are presented in this chapter.

The general conclusion summarizes the contents of the dissertation providing answers to research questions and suggesting some pedagogical implications and topics for future research.

Chapter One: Research Background.

Introduction

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Chapter one: Research Background

Introduction

When using our mother tongue (MT), we immensely understand Austin's phrase "how to do things with words". Because, we are able to thank, to greet, and to inform different people by using various linguistic forms without offending them. Likewise, we recognize well when to talk, how much to say, what to say and when to keep silent. But in the case of learning a foreign language (FL), things get more complicated. In other words, EFL learners experience difficulties in expressing themselves using the foreign language (Rose, 1999). So, what is easy to them in their MT may seem problematic in learning a FL. This issue, which is studied within the realm of pragmatics must be subject to teaching (Kasper, 1997). That is, EFL learners should learn how to perform communicative acts appropriately in a particular context. In fact, teaching pragmatic competence deserves teachers' attention, mainly in the case of ESP or EST where communication is associated with a certain occupational setting and where learners are obliged to match those norms with the appropriate use of language (McKay, 2002).

Running into this difficulty as FL learners, we suggest a model of teaching a pragmatic aspect *viz.* speech acts. More precisely, the model holds the principal goal of developing learners' pragmatic appropriateness in writing scientific research article abstract. This work will be presented within a discourse analysis framework which considers language as a social action and language learning as the learning of how to do things with language (McCarthy, 1991).

1.2 Background

The communicative movement appeared when researchers observed that the dominant teaching approaches in that time over-emphasized structure at the expense of other aspects of language (Johnson & Morrow, 1981). In other words, these approaches generated learners who were loaded with structure and grammar rules of language but were unable to use it in real life.

This situation urged researchers to move towards a communicative view of language. A view that supports the treatment of language as a means of communication and not merely as a structure (ibid.). This view has been more crystallized into the term of communicative competence. It was Hymes (1971) who coined the term "communicative competence" referring to the "rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (Hymes qtd. in Brumfit, 1984, p.25). More precisely, communicative competence refers to a knowledge that one should acquire for an appropriate use of language in different social contexts. Following in the steps of Hymes, many studies were carried out to set the communicative competence components (Rose & Kasper, 2001). The widely known division was made by Canale and Swain in 1980 (revised by Canale in 1983) (ibid.). For them, communicative competence includes four components: grammatical (linguistic), sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence (Canale, 1983).

Later on, other scholars proposed different divisions which set other aspects of language as the major parts of communicative competence such as pragmatic competence (Bachman, 1990). Analyzing different views on communicative competence components, one can notice that the most debatable component is pragmatic competence (El-Okda, 2011). Hymes (1971), Canale and Swain (1980), Blum-Kulka (1980) and others consider pragmatic competence as a part of sociolinguistic competence (cited in Canale, 1983). For instance, Blum-Kulka (1980) sees that being sociolinguistically competent implies mastering pragmatic rules which represent the situational conditions that are required for the fulfillment of a certain communicative act alongside with two other rules (social- appropriateness and linguistic-realization) (Blum-Kulka cited in Canale,1983). On the other hand, Bachman (1990) considers pragmatic competence as an independent component of language competence. For her, language competence comprises 'organizational' and 'pragmatic competence' (Bachman, 1990).

Pragmatic competence refers to one's ability to employ different linguistic forms appropriately in a given social and cultural context (Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2006). Moreover, generating and interpreting utterances appropriately in a certain context implies being pragmatically competent (ibid.). Thus, pragmatics is the field that studies language by considering the context and the "speaker's intention" (Yule, 1996 a). It is important to note that there are many themes that are dealt with under pragmatics such as 'deixis', 'reference', 'politeness', 'speech act', and the like (ibid.). Indeed, all these themes are needed to build up learners' pragmatic awareness and to enhance the appropriate use of language in real life situations (ibid.). Speech act theory, for example, investigates ways of performing particular communicative acts appropriately in some social contexts and how to understand what is being communicated between the lines (illocutionary intent) (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). In this regard, Kasper (1997) sees that: "In order to communicate successfully in a target language, pragmatic competence in L2 must be reasonably well developed."(p.2). Thus, pragmatic competence is a condition for effective communication (ibid.).

Attempts to explore the pragmatic world began, then, to emerge. Studies focus on the instruction of pragmatic aspects and testing different methods of teaching them (Kasper, 1997). Put another way, many researchers question the task of whether there is a necessity to teach pragmatic aspects or these can be automatically developed by teaching other aspects of language (Kasper, 1997; Rose, 1999; Judd, 1999, etc.). The answer mostly supports the need to draw learners' attention to pragmatic components *via* classroom teaching (Kasper, 1997). Considering this view, the focus moved towards the search for useful methods to make these pragmatic features more flexible in teaching. Many studies have been carried out to test different methods of teaching such as explicit/ implicit, deductive/inductive ways and so on (ibid.). In fact, explicit teaching of pragmatic items is considered as an effective way (ibid.). Further research on pragmatics attempted to project the role of pragmatic competence in communication through

searching for the causes of pragmatic lack. Thomas (1983) conducted a study on how cross-cultural pragmatic issues, such as the various ways of softening request, can cause a failure in communication. Globally, work on pragmatics has been widened to treat different pedagogical issues such as the performance of different speech acts in writing (Zimmerman, 1989; Troia, 2011).

Another field that attests the development of pragmatic findings is English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Triki, 2002). With the development of the world of work appeared the issue of learners who need to master the language that is related to their speciality (Widdowson, 1979). The ultimate need of these ESP learners is to know how to communicate effectively in their discourse community (Basturkman, 2006). For example, they have to be aware of how different communicative acts are performed in the target situation so as to avoid failure in communication (Triki, 2002). This fact was proved by many studies that are conducted in different ESP areas such as medicine, business, and academic settings (Basturkman, 2006). For instance, Dudely-Evans and St. John (1998) show the need of business learners to build their awareness of the different cultural views in performing pragmatic aspects. They note that

> A sensitivity to differences between cultures is necessary for successful
> business communications in matters such as the purpose of meetings, the use
> of direct or indirect negotiation tactics, the structuring of information or the
> use of politeness strategies in letters or meetings. (p.69).

So, pragmatic ability merits attention from ESP learners as well as from EST learners (Johns, 1991; Tarone, 2005).

Further, pragmatic studies discussed another area of learning which is language skills (Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2006). More precisely, pragmatic competence plays a crucial role in promoting speaking, listening, reading and writing skills (ibid.). In the case of writing, for

instance, the writer should master the different ways that can be exploited to convey his/ her illocutionary meaning like bold, italics, etc. alongside with the linguistic items (ibid.). In other words, being pragmatically competent in writing implies knowing how to correlate between contextual clues and linguistic forms in order to express the intended meaning. Additionally, writing as a process involves presuming the shared knowledge of the intended readership to fit in with what to write and not to flout one of the cooperative maxims such as the maxim of quantity, that is, to satisfy the requirements of the reader (Troia, 2011). Hence, as Troia (ibid.) points out, writing effectively involves a degree of pragmatic sensitivity. She maintains that "pragmatic difficulties likely have a pronounced impact on writing performance…" (Troia, 2011, p.41).

When one is confronted with the crucial roles that pragmatic competence plays in communication, an array of questions comes to his/her mind mainly the way this competence is built. The task of how to develop pragmatic competence has exercised the mind of language teachers for a long time (Clenell, 1999). Researchers aimed to promote it by searching for the main reasons that lie behind learners' lack of pragmatic proficiency for the purpose of decreasing pragmatic failure (Thomas, 1983; Cohen, 1996; Judd, 1999; Rose, 1999; and others). It might also be added, here, that researchers thought on how to approach the teaching of pragmatic aspects to students *via* integrating the purpose of enhancing pragmatic ability in curricula (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991; Cohen, 1996; Kasper, 1997; Judd, 1999; Rose, 1999; Rose & Kasper, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003, and others). Rose and Kasper (2001) maintain that

> In many second and foreign language teaching contexts, curricula and
>
> materials developed in recent years include strong pragmatic components or
>
> even adopt a pragmatic approach as their organizing principles (p.3).

1.3 Statement of purpose

Writing is one of the skills EST learners are required to master. To succeed in written communication, EST learners need to adhere to the rules of use of the discourse community they belong to (Basturkmen, 2006). That is, they have to fulfill different speech acts appropriately in a given target situation in order to facilitate the utterance interpretation by the reader.

The present study sets as its main aim the development of EST learners' pragmatic competence in writing. To achieve this task, the current inquiry intends to show the importance of pragmatic ability in EST writing by investigating the main causes of the present situation of EST learners' pragmatic lack and the failure that this deficiency has led to. More clearly, it attempts to set a methodology of teaching which holds as its main goal the upgrading of EST learners' pragmatic competence *via* a consciousness raising approach to teaching pragmatic aspects. This methodology is intended for learners in the field of science and technology. It plans to match between the features of scientific discourse and pragmatic aspects that are related to this area. Particularly worthy of note in this context is that among the different themes that are classified under the domain of pragmatics, speech act is chosen as the central focus of the current work.

Further, the present study has the purpose of helping EST teachers and learners to realize the importance of pragmatics in the writing of an abstract in the scientific discourse. It, also, aims to provide ESP teachers with the main tools to introduce pragmatic features in scientific context. Additionally, the work is intended to benefit EST learners and teachers in promoting their pragmatic awareness in writing an abstract.

1.4 Rationale

Studies in language teaching reveal that linguistic competence is not enough for developing the communicative competence (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). They show that most breakdowns in communication are due to a lack of pragmatic awareness (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991). So, it is clear that pragmatic competence plays an important role in making the learner a better communicator (ibid.). For instance, a FL learner who is able to distinguish between a direct and an indirect speech act and knows when to use either, can produce and interpret the utterances appropriately and can manage communication easily (Rose, 1999). So is the case with ESP (Basturkmen, 2006) and EST writing (Flowerdew, 2013) where learners should be pragmatically competent to perform well in the target situation (ibid.).

In the context of writing, pragmatic deficiencies such as the ignorance of shared meaning of certain clues in composing a text can hinder communication by preventing the reader from inferring the intended meaning (Troia, 2011). An EST learner who ignores the communicative intent behind, say, the use of the modal verb 'must' may produce an unintelligible and inappropriate utterance (ibid.). In addition, knowing about the mechanisms of writing entails being knowledgeable about how to anticipate what the readers have as a prior knowledge and how to execute different acts appropriately so as to generate an acceptable piece of writing within the discourse community (Flowerdew, 2013). In formal terms, one way of accessing a particular discourse community is to master the pragmatic rules (rules of appropriateness) that characterize the writing of its members (ibid.). Also, it is fairly easy to notice the pragmatic failure when reading the abstract written by EST learners. One form of this failure lies in learners' inability to perform speech acts, say, 'comparing'. The focus of the present study on writing skill builds on the assumption that the written passage can be more easily analyzed. Also, EST learners are required most of the times to write in English rather than to speak it. In

addition, the neglect of written mode in pragmatic studies (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010) leads us to spotlight this skill.

The crucial position that pragmatic competence holds in writing effective scientific abstract and the serious communicative problem that EST learners face motivated us to investigate possible ways for enhancing EST learners' pragmatic awareness in abstract writing in different scientific contexts.

1.5 Research Questions

Many EST learners face difficulties in pragmatics, the issue of how to develop pragmatic awareness in writing abstracts is regarded as the main question that should be asked in EST learners' mind. The present inquiry sets the following research questions:

➢ How can pragmatic deficiency affect EST learners' writing?

➢ What is the methodology that can be adopted to enhance EST learners' pragmatic awareness?

In an attempt to treat this main problem and after reviewing literature, the current study hypothesizes that a consciousness raising approach to teaching pragmatic aspects, in particular speech act, is likely to improve EST learners' pragmatic competence in writing through explicit and implicit teaching.

1.6 Methodology

To test the above hypothesis and the proposed methodology of teaching, the study chooses a sample of thirty four (34) third-year graduate students who study agriculture at Kasdi Merbah University of Ouargla, Algeria (as representatives of EST learners). This sample is particularly chosen as they are required to write an abstract of their research findings in English.

Participants underwent a one-semester period of treatment in their ordinary once- a week English session.

The present work makes use of two methods: the descriptive and the experimental. The descriptive method is implemented to give an account of the pragmatic deficiency in EST learners' writing. While the quasi- experimental method is used to scrutinize the cause of EST learners' pragmatic failure and to suggest the possible ways of improving their abstract writing *via* the application of the suggested methodology.

Data are collected from subjects by appealing to three techniques: questionnaire, test, and observation. The questionnaire is utilized for the purpose of analyzing EST learners' needs. It consists of 17 multiple choice questions that elicit learners' communicative and pragmatic needs. Concerning the assessment component, two tests are administered. A pretest is administered to record the students' level before the teaching sessions and a post-test is administered to check the students' achievement after the period of formal instruction in pragmatics. The comparison between the two tests will confirm or refute our hypothesis. During the accomplishment of this experiment, the subjects will be under observation so as to control for extraneous variables such as motivation and to check the need for further explanation.

Pedagogically speaking, the issue of teaching pragmatics to EST learners involves mainly three major procedures. The first one refers to the analysis of the learners' pragmatic needs, the case of speech acts. The second procedure is concerned with supplying linguistic forms and sociolinguistic factors that are required for the performance of the speech acts under study. The final procedure is about the assessment of EST learners' pragmatic ability consisting mainly of devising activities that are related to the second procedure.

1.7 Limitation of the study

In conducting the study, we face some problems. The main difficulty is in keeping the number of the selected sample constant during the experiment. Also, the nature of pragmatic instruction in FL constitutes a difficulty for both the teacher and the learner.

1.8 Structure of the thesis

The present inquiry is divided into four chapters. In the first chapter, the research background, we define the framework of the study, that is, its purpose, rationale, methodology, problem, limitation, and structure. The second chapter is devoted to the definition of pragmatics in general and pragmatic competence. Further, it identifies some of the themes that fall under the field of pragmatics mainly speech act which is the concern of the current work. The chapter also accounts for the relevance of pragmatics in EST writing and precisely in research article writing.

In chapter three, we present some of the causes of pragmatic failure and suggest a methodology for developing pragmatic ability in writing an effective research article abstract. The final chapter reviews the steps of conducting the experiment alongside with the obtained results. Additionally, it presents some pedagogical implications and recommendations for the teaching of the issue under study.

1.9 Key concepts

Abstract of research article: is a single paragraph which is usually the first element of the article. It summarizes the content of the article by following common structure (Burrows, 2011).

Communicative acts or speech acts: are actions people perform through language (Kasper, 1997). Kasper (1997) argues that the term 'communicative act' is more general than 'speech act'. Communicative act is neutral, that is, between spoken and written mode and it may include even a non-verbal action (ibid.).

Communicative competence: is the knowledge of language rules, and how these rules are used to understand and produce appropriate language in a variety of sociocultural settings. (Hedge, 2000)

Direct speech act: is the act of expressing the illocutionary intent such as 'apologizing' in an utterance explicitly (Searle, 1975). That is, the illocutionary intent is the literal meaning of the utterance (ibid.). E.g. "I'm sorry", "Excuse me" (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991: 156).

Discourse Analysis approach: is an approach to the study of language use. It scrutinizes the relationship between language and its context (McCarthy, 1991).

Discourse community: refers to "a particular group of people who are brought together for specific purposes" (McKay, 2002: 99).

Discourse competence: refers to the ability to understand and produce contextualized stretches of language in spoken or written texts. (Hedge, 2000)

English for Specific Purposes (ESP): is a branch of ELT that analyses the needs of learners in the target situation to design its course and teaching materials (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

English for Science and Technology (EST): it is one of the main sub-categories of ESP that receives great attention. It aims to teach English to learners of science and technology for the sake of meeting their academic and occupational needs.

Grammatical competence (or linguistic competence): knowledge of language itself, its form and meaning (Hedge, 2000).

Illocutionary intent /force: is the intended meaning of an utterance (Cohen, 1996). An utterance can have different illocutionary intents (ibid.). For instance, the utterance *"what time is it?"*

(McKay, 2002: 132) may be a sign of 'opening conversation' or a 'request of leaving' or 'asking for information' (ibid.).

Indirect speech act: refers to the case where illocutionary intent is performed implicitly (Searle, 1975). E.g. the question "can you speak a little louder" (Brown & Yule, 1983:232) can be used to perform a 'request'.

Pragmatic awareness: is to be knowledgeable about the way language is used in relation to its context (Hedge, 2000).

Pragmatic competence: is the ability to use different linguistic forms appropriately in different contexts (Kasper, 1997).

Pragmatic failure: it is the misunderstanding of the speaker's intention by focusing on the literal meaning of an utterance (Thomas, 1983). Also, it refers to the inappropriate use of language (ibid.).

Pragmatic fluency: it is the extent to which the speaker contributes effectively, politely, etc. in communication (Kasper, 1997)

Pragmatic sensitivity: it is the ability to detect the inappropriate use of language and to choose the appropriate linguistic form of an act (Troia, 2011)

Sociolinguistic competence: the ability to use language in ways appropriate to the contexts of use, role relationship, and communicative purposes (Hedge, 2000)

Sociolinguistic factors: are the features of situation that help the speaker to decide whether to use formal or informal language such as the social distance between the interlocutors (Blundell et al., 1982).

Strategic competence: the ability to cope with different communicative situation features and to repair communication breakdowns (Canale and Swain, 1980).

Target situation: it is the occupational context where the learner is supposed to use language appropriately to join the discourse community (McKay, 2002).

Universal pragmatics: it is the pragmatic knowledge which is known by all communities (Kasper, 1997). For instance all people know that there are turns in conversation. (ibid.).

Writing: is a complex and social process where an interaction is held between a writer and a reader via the text (Hedge, 2000).

Chapter Two: Pragmatics in EST writing

Introduction

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Conclusion

Chapter Two: Pragmatics in EST writing

Introduction

It is undeniable that successful communication involves more than mastering the linguistic forms it also involves their appropriate use in different social contexts (Hinkel, 1999). Early language studies were concerned more with the grammatical analysis of the sentence and the consideration of language as an abstract device (Levinson, 1983). Language was, then, dissociated from its uses. It was the works of the philosophers Austin (1962), Searle (1969), Grice (1975), etc. that paved the way to the incorporation of contextual clues in language studies. That is, the contextual description of the language structure has been adjusted to the syntactic, phonological and semantic one. With the rise of such studies, interest in pragmatics has grown as a subfield of linguistics which accounts for how a speaker uses language in communication (Levinson, 1983). More precisely, pragmatics is concerned with the way language is used in different contexts (ibid.). In practice, it is pragmatic competence that enables language users to choose linguistic forms appropriate to a given setting (Kasper, 1997). So, by appealing to one's pragmatic competence, one can perform acts appropriately and comprehend the others' as well. To this end, this competence contributes in building one's productive and receptive skills (UsÓ-Juan & Matinez-flor, 2006). Further, pragmatic competence reflects one of ESP concerns which is the investigation of how a given discourse community performs communicative acts in different contexts (Basturkmen, 2006).

In the present chapter, the focus is firstly on reviewing some definitions of pragmatics and pragmatic competence. Also, the themes that fall under pragmatics, mainly speech act theory, are presented. Secondly, the relation between pragmatics and the field of ESP, in particular EST writing, is discussed.

2.1 Definition of Pragmatics

Pragmatics is often considered as the 'rag-bag' where hard treated data were sent (Leech, 1983). In other words, any data which cannot be accounted for using formal analysis were put in the pragmatic 'wastebasket'. Recently, linguists have moved towards the reconsideration of the rag-bag elements (ibid.). More explicitly, the rag-bag elements were subject to careful examination as they are parts of comprehending how language is used in communication. Further, these elements can account for certain items of language and meaning such as implicature which cannot be analyzed by relying solely on semantics and syntax (ibid.). To define pragmatic elements, linguists feel the need for a precise definition of the scope of pragmatics that covers all the rag-bag elements.

Pragmatics was defined by many researchers . In studying the science of sign, semiotics, Morris (1938) split it into three areas: syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. For him, the latter refers to the study of "the relation of signs to interpreters" (Morris (1938) qtd. in Levinson, 1983, p.1). Put another way, pragmatics deals with what a certain sign implies to its interpreters' belief, thought, etc. In Morris' sense, then, the scope of pragmatics is so wide as to include the psychological, biological, and sociological states of the interpreters (ibid.)

To narrow the scope of pragmatics so as to fit linguistic uses, Leech (1983) provides another definition to pragmatics and sees it "as the study of meaning in relation to speech situations." (Leech, 1983, p.6). Unlike Morris (1938) who includes non- linguistic aspects in the field of pragmatics such as 'slips of tongue', Leech (ibid.) claims that pragmatics is concerned with the study of how meaning can change in speech situations. For instance, it is pragmatics that explains why people 'apologize' using "Excuse me" in a certain speech situation and not "sorry" (Cohen, 1996). It is note worthy that the speech situation for Leech (1983) comprises not merely the speaker and the addressee   (i.e. interpreter) but also the physical and social context,

shared knowledge, the intention and goal of the speaker, the utterance as an act with its three levels (locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary).

Levinson (1983) presents eight definitions of pragmatics. All these definitions, in fact, express one main idea in different ways. They support the idea that pragmatics refers to the study of the correlation between linguistic structure and appropriate context which is needed for language understanding (Levinson, 1983).

A further shared point among these definitions is the use of terms 'meaning' and 'context' in identifying the scope of pragmatics (Levinson, 1983). Levinson (ibid) insists on the specification of these two terms. Starting with meaning, he (ibid) points out that defining pragmatics as "the study of all aspects of meaning not captured in a semantic theory" (Levinson, 1983, p.12) requires a specification of pragmatic meaning. More clearly, this definition shows that semantics cannot explain all aspects of meaning and that what is left out by semantics is part of pragmatics. But it is crucial to know how to delimit meaning for an exact definition of pragmatics. By exploring Grice's distinction (1957) between two levels of meaning, namely natural and non-natural meaning, Levinson (ibid) claims that pragmatics is interested in non-natural meaning. That is, pragmatics is the study of conveyed or intentional meaning, its effect on the addressee and how the speaker's meaning and effect are related. Thus, pragmatic meaning comprises the speaker's meaning of an utterance, the effect of the utterance on the addressee and the relation between them (Levinson, 1983; Fraser, 1983).Concerning the specification of context, Leech (1983) accounts for what a speech situation may include.

Not far from Leech preview, Crystal (1997) defines pragmatics in terms of user's performance, that is, context. Crystal (1997) supports Leech's definition by exemplifying what pragmatics deals with exactly. In Crystal's words (1997), pragmatics is

The study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication. (Crystal, 1997, p.301)

In other words, pragmatics studies language from the point of view of its users, in particular, their choice of words, the difficulties that they face and effect that acts leave on the listeners.

With a glance at the above definitions, one can deduce that pragmatics is the field that studies the meaning of utterances, taking into account who said what to whom, when, why, how, where, and for what purpose. To sum up, it is pragmatics that seeks for and analyzes the relation between meaning and the context it is used in.

2.1.1 Pragmatic Competence

A definition of pragmatic competence is provided to better grasp what pragmatics means. It is widely agreed that pragmatic competence is a component of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1989; Bachman, 1990; Celce-Murcia, 1995; Rose & Kasper, 2001 and others). Communicative competence was the subject of many studies which searched to set it in an adequate theoretical framework (ibid.).

Bachman (1990) regards pragmatic competence as a component of communicative competence. For her, language competence consists of two main components: organizational and pragmatic competence (Bachman, 1990). The former comprises the knowledge of linguistic competence or the areas that are needed for constructing sentences *viz.* vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and phonology/graphology (ibid.). On the other hand, it includes the textual competence, i.e, the knowledge of how to organize a text which comprises cohesion and rhetorical organization (ibid.). The latter, pragmatic competence, encompasses illocutionary competence or the knowledge of how to express one's intention to be understood with a certain meaning or to

perform functions such as the ideational, manipulative, heuristic, and imaginative in reference to Halliday's work (1973). Further, pragmatic competence includes sociolinguistic competence which refers to the knowledge of how to issue communicative acts appropriately in a social context (ibid.). That is, sociolinguistic competence is concerned with the ability not only to use the appropriate dialects, variety or registers in each context but also to generate natural utterances by understanding the cultural references and speech figures (Bachman, 1990) (see Figure 1, p. 25)

Bachman's tree diagram below shows that in order to use language communicatively, one needs formal knowledge or organizational competence and pragmatic competence (ibid.).

Focusing on pragmatic competence, this entails the mastery of two abilities. First, being pragmatically competent in language means to be able to produce language appropriately in different contexts (Kasper & Bulm-Kulka, 1993; Taguchi, 2009). In other words, a pragmatically competent speaker knows how to encode his/her intention with respect to a given context, that is, where, when, with whom, why and for what purpose (ibid.).
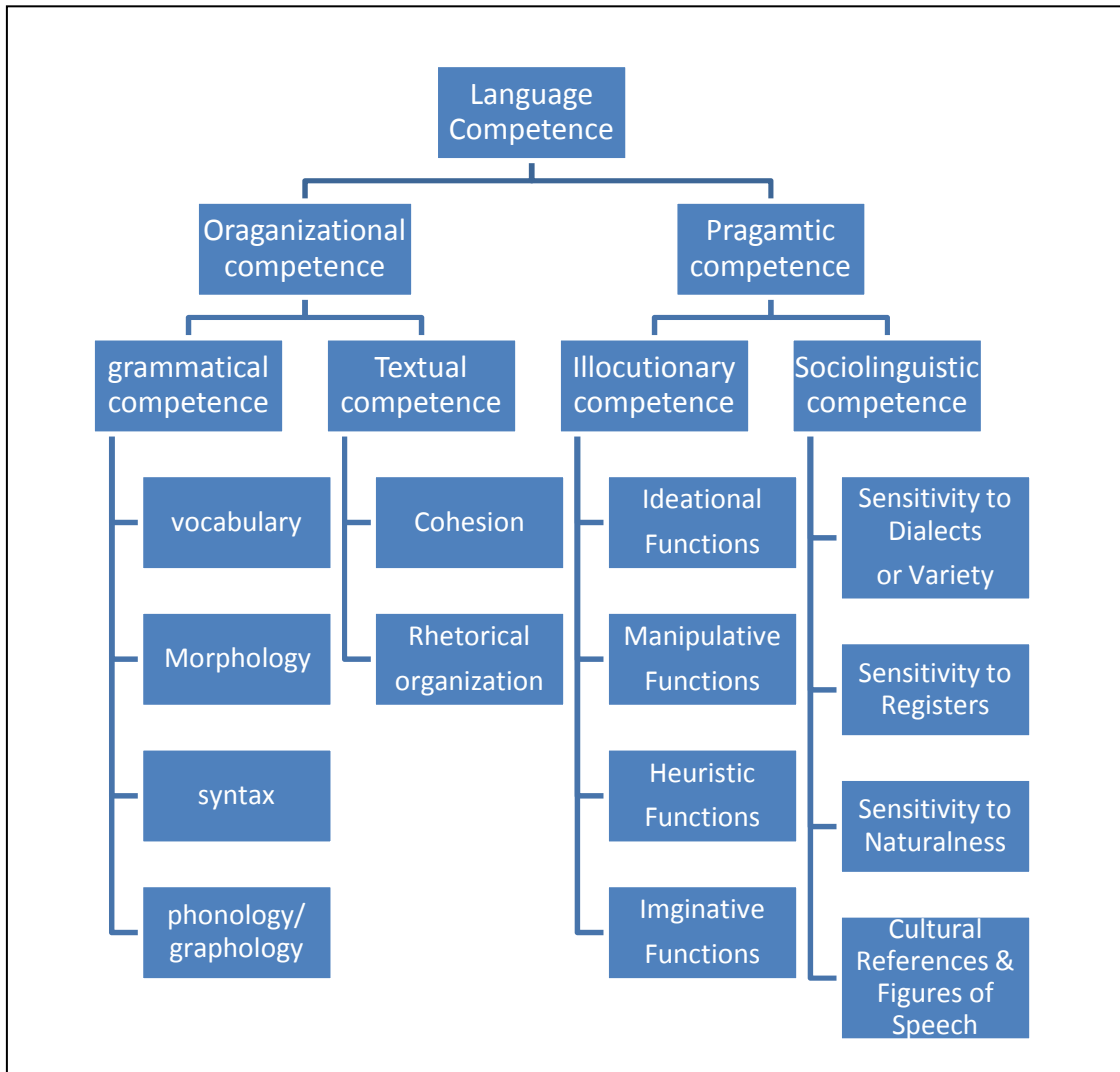
Figure 1. Components of language competence (Bachman, 1990, p. 87).

Thomas (1995) and others see that pragmatic competence refers also to the ability to understand the illocutionary force of an utterance (Thomas cited in McKay, 2002). More clearly, pragmatic competence is the ability to grasp the speaker's intention or what s/he wants to perform *via* an utterance with reference to a given context. In sum, pragmatic competence involves being aware that utterances convey a certain meaning (illocutionary meaning) which is appropriate to the context in which communication occurs (El-Okda, 2011). Bachman (1990) puts it that pragmatic competence is "the knowledge of the components that enable us to relate

words and utterances to their meanings, the intentions of language users and relevant characteristics of language use contexts" (Bachman, 1990, p. 89-90)

On these premises, Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) point out that pragmatic competence should consider two elements which are both required in construction and in comprehension ability: Pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. Pragmalinguistics refers to the resources of linguistic forms that speakers need in conveying communicative acts (Leech, 1983; Kasper, 1997; Rose, 1999) while sociopragmatics signifies "the social interference of pragmatics" (Leech, 1983, pp. 10-11). That is, it concerns "the effect of non-linguistic environment" (Marmaridou, 2011, p.78) on the speaker's use of language (ibid.). Practically speaking, once speakers aim to perform, say, a request, they choose from the linguistic resources a form that goes with their social perception or appropriate behaviour (Rose & Kasper, 2001). Put another way, they opt for either a question or an imperative form depending on social power, age, social distance, etc. in performing, say, a *request*. Hence, the ability to match these two elements together accurately and appropriately in performing and comprehending a communicative act is at the core of pragmatic competence raising (Kasper, 1997).

2.1.2 Aspects of Pragmatic Competence

A better understanding of pragmatic competence, then, requires the specification of its aspects (Levinson, 1983). It has been previously mentioned that data which cannot be described using formal analysis were sent to the 'pragmatic wastebasket' (Leech, 1983). Levinson (ibid.) emphasizes that the analysis of the wastebasket elements can provide an adequate framework for pragmatics. It is worth noting that there is no fixed list of these aspects (Yule, 1996 a). He (ibid.) put them in the following way:

2.1.2.1 Deixis are the 'grammatical features' used in pointing at things and which require a reference to the context to be understood (Levinson, 1983; Yule, 1996 a). In other

words, 'deixis' refers to the use of certain expressions to indicate some items of a given context (ibid.). Deixis is a pragmatic aspect which involves a consideration of contextual clues such as who is pointing at whom, when, where, etc. (Levinson, 1983; Mey, 2001). This means that one should refer to who is pointing and his place to understand what is meant by, say, 'there' in an utterance. In fact, misunderstanding of such deictic expressions is a good evidence of the importance of deixis in the process of interpretation (Levinson, 1983). Levinson (1983) illustrates the point by a situation where a speaker utters the following sentence when 'lights go out': *"Listen, I'm not disagreeing with you but with you and not about this but about this"* (p.55). Here, it is difficult to grasp the meaning of the utterance if you do not know what the speaker means by 'you and this'. Further, deixis are classified into three categories, i.e. personal, spatial and temporal deixis (Levinson, 1983; Yule, .1996). Levinson (ibid.) adds two other categories: discourse and social deixis. Let us consider the following example:

e.g.: **I** have called **you** many times but I think you weren't **there**. So, I left **then.**

The example illustrates three types of deictic expressions:

a) Personal deixis: are expressions used to point to the speaker or 1st person (I), or to the addressee as a 2nd person (you), or to the hearer and audience who are not part of the event, that is, the 3rd person. For instance 'your mother' (Levinson, 1983; Yule, 1996 a).

b) Spatial deixis: are expressions that specify the distance of the event from the speakers' location such as 'here', 'there' or a verb such as 'go' and 'come' (ibid.). The distance can be either 'proximal' or 'distal' (ibid.). In the example above, 'there' indicates a place that is 'distal' from the speaker's location.

c) Time deixis: refers to expressions that point to the distance of a temporal point from the utterance's time or from the current reality (Levinson, 1983; Yule, 1996

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a). For example: 'now', 'then' (ibid.).There are two main time deixis which have to be considered, coding and receiving time (Levinson, 1983). For instance, 'then' in the above example points at a moment which is past according to the coding time.

d) Discourse deixis: are the expressions which refer to a part of the discourse where the utterance occurs, or which show the relation of utterance to the surrounding text such as 'this, that, but, to the contrary' (Levinson, 1983). For instance, the determiner 'that' in the following utterance points to a discourse which was previously presented:

e.g.*: That was the quotation I never succeed to interpret* .

e) Social deixis: refers to the use of expressions which reflect the participants' social identity or the social relationship between them (Levinson, 1983). It is the use of certain expressions that show us, for example, the relation between speaker and addressee. The use of pronouns 'tu' and 'vous' in French is a good illustration of social deixis (ibid.). In English, the lexical item 'my supervisor' is a social deixis as it expresses a relative ranking relation between participants (ibid.).

2.1.2.2 Reference It is the act of using linguistic forms to replace a certain linguistic item which enables interpreters to understand something (Yule, 1996 a). In other words, the speaker utilizes forms to refer to a certain point (ibid.). Referring expressions can have an *attributive use* (i.e. indefinite physical referent that can refer to whatever or whoever fits the description of an utterance) or a *referential use* (refers to definite noun phrase) (Carlson, 2006). To understand the two types, let us consider the following utterance

e.g.: " *it is important to note that a child who tells his teacher an imaginative story which she subsequently writes down for him is not*

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engaged in creative writing but in creative speaking" (Halliday & Hasan,

1976, p.47)

In the above example, the word 'a child' can refer to any child who tells a story and thus it is an attributive use. But if this word is replaced by 'John', for instance, then the pronoun 'him' can illustrate a referential use as it refers to a definite noun.

Like deictic expressions, the interpretation or use of a referring expression requires recourse to the user and context (Mey, 2001, Carlson, 2001). Put another way, referring expressions are context sensitive, that is, their meaning changes with the change of context (ibid.). Therefore, the addressee can grasp what such expressions refer to from the context that the speaker creates (ibid.).

2.1.2.3 Presupposition implies the encoding of a certain meaning in an utterance as a background knowledge or a common belief (Stalkner, 1974). That is, the speaker constructs a message based on what s/he assumes that the addressee shares or believes (ibid.). When a speaker uses, for instance, a reference, s/he presupposes that the addressee knows the intended referent (ibid.). Thus, the inference of presupposition as well as its use relies on the speaker's assumption (ibid.). From another angle, the addressee has to exploit his/her belief and context so as to understand what the speaker's utterance presupposes (ibid.). There are many types of presupposition (Yule, 1996a). Some of them are:

a) Existential presupposition: refers to the inference that something exists such as '*your book'* presupposes that 'you have a book' (Yule, 1996 a)

b) Factive presupposition: suggests that there is a fact (ibid.). For instance, the utterance 'the teacher does not realize that there is something wrong in the exercise' assumes the fact that there is a mistake in the exercise.

c) Lexical presupposition: concerns the use of some words such as "*stop, again*, etc." (Yule, 1996, p.28) which hold a supposition that an action has happened before the moment of speaking (ibid.). For example, the utterance "the camel is ill again" points to a presupposition that the camel was ill **before.**

2.1.2.4 Cooperative Principle (CP) It is a set of criteria set out by Grice (1975) to aid interlocutors in co-operating and succeeding in communication (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). CP can guarantee an effective interaction by informing interlocutors on how to provide the required "conversational contribution" (Grice, 1975, p.45). These principles consist of four maxims called maxims of cooperation (ibid.):

a) Quantity: to be informative but not more than is required (Grice, 1975). For example, an article about "pragmatics" should discuss different definitions of pragmatics. That is, it should contain only the necessary information that explains to the reader clearly what pragmatics is.

b) Quality: to say what you think is true and you have evidence about it (ibid.). In the previous example, the article must include evidence about the definition of pragmatics such as quotations that confirm what is written.

c) Relation: to be relevant (ibid.). For instance, neurolinguistics has no direct relation with the written article about pragmatics.

d) Manner: to avoid ambiguity and to show "how what is said to be said" (Grice, 1975, p. 46). Back to the above example, the ideas about pragmatics must be structured in a clear and concise way.

Complying to or violating CP has an obvious effect on the speaker success in communicating his/her intent and on the addressee's grasping of the message (Celce-Murcia &

Olshtain, 2000). As an aspect of pragmatics, CP concerns the way users manipulate their language to fit a given context of communication.

2.1.2.5 Implicature It is the meaning between the lines, that is, it is more than what words say (Grice, 1975). More clearly, an utterance conveys the meaning of its linguistic items as well as an extra hidden meaning which is called 'implicature'. As Yule (1996 a) puts it "[implicature] is an additional conveyed meaning" (p.35). It is important to note that there are two types of implicature (ibid.):

i) Conversational implicature: It is the result of CP violation (Grice, 1975). In other words, a speaker flouts one maxim for the sake of getting an extra meaning across in conversation (Grice, 1975). Interlocutors make use of maxims as channels to send an additional meaning while interacting. Conversational implicature consists of the following three types (Yule, 1996 a; Mey, 2001):

1) Generalized conversational implicature: It refers to the case where an addressee can infer the additional sent meaning without the aid of contextual knowledge (Grice, 1975). The implicit meaning in this case is not tied to a given context but can be the same in any context. Yule (1996 a) provides the following utterance to illustrate the point.

e.g.: "I was sitting in a garden one day, a child looked over the fence" (p.41)

Anyone who observes the utterance can deduce that 'garden' and 'child' are not the speaker's property without knowing about context (setting, time, speaker, etc.) (ibid.). And even within different contexts, that is, different settings, time, or speakers, the inference remains appropriate. Therefore, the knowledge of context is useless (ibid.).

2) Scalar implicature: similarly, contextual knowledge is not vital in scalar implicature inference. It implies the use of one item from the scale of values, and the omission of the other higher items from the inference process (Mey, 2001). An example of this could be

e.g.: *The farmer uses some of the crops.*

The example contains an implicit meaning that the farmer utilizes 'some' of the crops and not 'all' or 'most'. That is, there is an omission of 'all or most' as higher items and keeping just one item 'some' (ibid.).

3) Particularized conversational implicature: unlike the previous types of implicature, particularized implicature involves a special knowledge of context (Mey, 2001). The comprehension of the implicit meaning hinges on the consideration of context, i.e. it is tied to a particular setting, time, speaker, etc. Let us imagine that you invite your friend to travel with you and he/she replies by saying: "it is September". So, to understand the meaning of this reply, one needs to know that the speaker is, say, a farmer and that September is the harvest time. In this case, the answer would be "sorry, I cannot, I will be busy" (ibid.).

ii) Conventional implicature: is the additional meaning that is embedded in words like "even, but, yet, etc." (Yule, 1996 a, p.45). This extra meaning is conventional. It is note-worthy that conventional implicature differs from conversational type in that the former is neither related to maxims, nor does it require special contextual elements to be interpreted, and it is neither tied to conversation (ibid.). Taking *'but'* as an illustration, one can notice that it holds a constant meaning that 'the second meaning is in contrast to the first one' (Yule, 1996 a). The following example illustrates the point more clearly

e.g.: "She was poor but she was honest" (Grice, 1961, p.127)

The example implies that there is a contrast between two situations, i.e. poverty and honesty (ibid.). Further, implicature interpretation and use entail referring to speaker's flouting of a certain maxim, speaker's context, or background knowledge, that is, to 'speech situation' (Grice, 1974). Being aware of the shared knowledge and Cooperative principle, speakers can generate different types of implicature on one part. On the part of the addressee, to infer the hidden meaning, s/he needs to analyze either which maxim is flouted or the speaker's context or his/her background knowledge. For instance, a speaker can flout the 'quantity' maxim by saying less than is required in order to send a conversational implicature that s/he wants to close the conversation. So, the addressee has to be able to examine the flouted maxim together with context so as to understand the conveyed meaning.

2.1.2.6 Politeness Principle (PP) It is a set of principles that aim to strengthen the relationship between interlocutors in conversation (Leech, 1983). A question may arise here. What is the relation between the two sets of principles *viz.* PP and CP? Like CP, PP is an aspect of pragmatics as it focuses on the way users choose their language to maintain the relation between them (ibid.). Leech (ibid.) points out that Politeness Principles are 'a necessary complement' to CP (p. 80). That is to say, CP alongside with PP ensure for the speaker a secure participation in conversation (ibid.). More precisely, the role of CP in conversation is to organize it; while preserving the relation between the parts of conversation is PP based (Leech, 1983).

2.1.2.7 Cross-Cultural pragmatics (CCP) It is an area of pragmatics that focuses on the way people from different cultures or communities use pragmatic principles to communicate (Kecskes, 2012). Moreover, holding comparison between two cultures to extract similarities and differences in performing different communicative acts is the concern of cross-cultural pragmatics. Clearly, a particular speech community supports a certain cooperative maxim, say, the maxim of 'quality' in communication more than another community which may highlight,

for example, the maxim of quantity (Leech, 1983). So is the case with politeness. What is considered as polite in English may be less polite in Arabic and *vice versa* (El-Okda, 2011). Cross-cultural pragmatics is a vast area of research which includes many subjects such as pragmatic failure, cultural breakdown, contrastive pragmatics, etc. (Kecskes, 2012). It is note-worthy that cross-cultural pragmatic studies play a crucial role in teaching and learning pragmatics by pointing at areas where users from different cultures meet, that is, facilitating the learning task, and where they differ as an area that needs a special focus in learning (ibid.).

2.1.2.8 Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) It is a sub-area of pragmatics that investigates how nonnative speakers (NNSs) behave in the process of learning second language (SL/L2) (Kasper & Bulm-Kulka, 1993). This sub-area of pragmatics derives its name from the fact that NNSs develop a style of acting which contains features from their first language (L1) as well as L2 (ibid.).It is concerned with the way NNSs generate, comprehend and acquire speech acts and other pragmatic aspects in a second language. Pragmatic development, pragmatic transfer, and other areas are included in ILP studies (ibid.). L2 learners, for example, issue an act based on their mother tongue (MT) and target language (TL) knowledge. In sum, L2 acquisition of pragmatic norms is the core of ILP interest (ibid.).

2.1.2.9 Speech Acts (SA) It is one of the major themes studied under pragmatics. SA theory was pioneered by the philosopher Austin (1962) and developed by Searle (1969). Practically, when communicating, speakers issue acts such as apologizing, requesting, etc. (Austin, 1962). In other words, words uttered are not merely linguistic items but are means by which speakers intend to perform acts (ibid.). Precisely, SA theory is ruled by the assumption that language is doing and not only saying (Tan, 1994). More about Speech acts will be said next.

2.1.3 Speech Act theory

Speech Act theory emerged as a trend within the two areas of philosophy of language and pragmatic research (Sbisà, 1995). In the late 1950s, the field of philosophy of language was supported by the idea that language statements are used either to state or describe facts (Austin, 1962). The linguistic field is primarily concerned with categorizing statements based on their truth value, that is, to judge the truth of a literal meaning of an utterance (ibid.). In analyzing the truth value of statements, Austin (1962) noticed that there are some utterances which do not merely state facts but perform acts and that these utterances cannot be described using a truth value criterion. In other words, one cannot judge the extent to which these utterances are true (ibid.). Austin (1962) set the difference between 'constatives' and 'performatives'. The former refer to statements which are used to state facts and can be true or false (ibid.). While the latter represent the utterances that contain an explicit issuing of an act (ibid.).

Austin (ibid.) realized that all utterances are performatives. According to him, there are no constative utterances but only performatives which are of two types explicit and primary performatives (ibid.). Explicit performatives refer to the performance of acts by the use of explicit performative verb while the primary performatives is an act without explicit appearance of illocutionary intent. So, 'constatives' make a class of acts which can have an explicit or implicit illocutionary intent. Further, Austin (1962) explained that all utterances have three levels:

a) Locutionary act: refers to the act of saying something (Austin, 1962). That is, the literal meaning of an utterance. For example, the utterance *"I feel sleepy"* means that the speaker is in a state of needing sleep.

b) Illocutionary act: implies the function of an utterance, i.e., what a speaker intends to say by a certain utterance (Coulthard, 1977; Cohen, 1996). As Austin (1962)

explained, unlike locutionary act which refers to the act of saying, illocutionary act is an act performed by saying something. Back to the previous example, the utterance can function as a request to stop working. Practically, the speaker intends to say: 'I want to sleep, could we stop working and continue later, please?'

c) Perlocutionary act: means the effect of an utterance on the addressee (Cohen, 1996) such as 'uptake' or the understanding of the request and the stopping of work in the above mentioned example (Austin, 1962). Austin, (1962) distinguished between 'perlocutionary object', that is, the intended effect and the 'perlocutionary sequel' which refers to unintended effect (Coulthard, 1977). Applying these terms to the above example, the perlocutionary object can be the decision to take a break by the addressee. While as perlocutionary sequel the addressee can comment by saying 'you need a cup of tea, then '.

It is worthy of note to mention the influential contribution of Searle in the theory of Speech Act. Searle (1962) provided an explanation to the work of Austin on certain points and added new parts to the theory. In fact, both studies supplied the main points that built the framework of the theory.

2.1.3.1 Classification of SAs

An important point in this theory is the categorization of speech acts. Austin (1962) and Searle (1962) notice the huge number of speech acts, precisely illocutionary acts. They raise the following question "Are there some basic illocutionary acts to which all or most of the others are reducible" (Searle, 1969, p.69). Put another way, they searched for the main categories where all speech acts can be classified. Based on the following performative verbs, Austin (ibid.) categorizes SAs into five classes:

1) Verdictives: to provide a judgment according to certain values, for example, 'to analyze, to rule, to diagnose' (Austin, 1962).

2) Exercitives: to decide how something should be such as 'to order, to advise, to warn' (ibid.).

3) Commissives: to commit the speaker to perform something, e.g.: 'to promise, to swear, to bet' (Austin, 1962).

4) Behabitives: to react to a certain behavior (ibid.). In other words, it is the expression of a certain view about a behaviour, e.g.: 'to apologize, to criticize, to thank' (ibid.).

5) Expositives: to give a detailed explanation about a view (ibid.). Instances of expositives are: 'to interpret, to cite, and to argue' (ibid.).

In his turn, Searle (1983) classified SAs into five categories. The speaker's intention was the central basis upon which Searle set SAs categories (Searle, 1983). The five categories are as follows:

1) Declaratives: are SAs which change the current state of the addressee (Searle, 1983; Hatch, 1992). To illustrate the point, here is an example. If a jury announces: *"we find the defendant not guilty"* (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 25), the utterance changes the state of an accused person from being guilty to being innocent (ibid.).

2) Representatives/assertives: in uttering representatives, the speakers present their beliefs, thoughts, assertions, illustrations, and so on (Searle, 1983; Cohen, 1996). For instance, a speaker hypothesizes a belief by saying: *"Today, tomatoes can be grown in the desert"* (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 25).

3) Expressives: refer to SAs that express the speaker's feelings such as 'thanking', 'apologizing, complaining, complimenting, etc.' (Searle, 1983; Hatch, 1992). e.g.: All praise be to ALLAH.

4) Directives: are expressions that enable the speaker to require from the addressee to do an action (Searle, 1983; Gutting, 2002). Examples of directives can be 'requesting, ordering, inviting, etc.' (ibid.). e.g.: *"We should be very pleased if you could come and have dinner with us this evening"* (Blundell *et al.*, 1982, p.180).

5) Commissives: In commissives, the speaker commits to perform a certain action such as 'promising, refusing and threatening (Searle, 1983; Gutting, 2002).
   eg.: *"If you don't settle your account within ten days I shall be forced to put the matter in the hands of our solicitors"* (Blundell *et al.*, 1982, p.150).

There are other recent classifications of SAs but they are mainly based on Austin and Searle's work (Hatch, 1992). The council of Europe (1976), for instance, sets new categories of functions to serve language teaching goals (ibid.). This new list consists of six major functions, each of them contains sub-functions (ibid.). An illustration from this classification is presented by Hatch (1992) in the following: "Imparting/Seeking FACTUAL information: indentify, ask, report, say, think X" (p.131).

In addition Austin (1962) and Searle (1975) distinguished between two types of SAs direct and indirect ones.

2.1.3.2 Direct and indirect speech acts

Not far from Austin's distinction between Explicit and primary performatives, Searle (1975) divided SAs into two types, direct and indirect SAs. He (ibid.) did not only change labels but also detailed the analysis of indirect SAs. Direct SAs, according to him, indicate an explicit

representation of illocutionary force in the literal meaning (Searle, 1975). In this case, the speaker intends to communicate exactly what s/he utters as a linguistic meaning. Whereas, indirect SAs refer to the speaker's intention or what s/he wants to get across *via* an utterance (ibid.). Moreover, in the direct SAs the meaning of linguistic items reflects the illocutionary force; while in the indirect SAs the linguistic meaning limits the force (Coulthard, 1977). Searle (1975) posits that

> The simplest cases of meaning are those in which the speaker utters a sentence and means exactly and literally what he says … But notoriously, not all cases of meaning are this simple: In hints, insinuations, irony, and metaphor-to mention a few examples- the speaker's utterance meaning and the sentence meaning come apart in various ways. One important class of such cases is that in which the speaker utters a sentence, means what he says, but also means something more. (p.59)

It is sometimes hard to differentiate between direct and indirect SAs (Searle, 1975). More clearly, an utterance can be classified as a direct SA in one category of function as is the case in the directives and can be an indirect one in another category (ibid.). The utterance *"Thank you for not smoking"* (Gutting, 2002, p.20), for example, can be seen as a direct SA in the expressive category and as an indirect one in directives (requiring or prohibiting) (ibid.). In fact, whether it is performed directly or indirectly, the utterance should meet certain felicity conditions.

2.1.3.3 Felicity conditions

Unlike Austin (1962) who investigated conventional SAs, Searle (1969) focused on unconventional ones (Searle, 1969; Coulthard, 1977). Despite their different working grounds,

Austin and Searle suggested a set of 'felicities' or conditions which should be fulfilled for the SA to be performed.

Austin (1962) sees that a SA must be performed completely and correctly as an accepted convention in the appropriate circumstances and by the appropriate person. The first condition implies that an act should exist in the community as a convention (ibid.). An obvious instance is the issuing of the utterance *"I divorce you"* in the Islamic culture as opposed to Christianity where such an act does not exist (Austin, 1962, p.27). Further, the appropriate circumstance to 'divorce' means its performance by the suitable person, that is, the husband. But if the act is not done according to appropriate procedures such as the husband seriousness and mental stability, the act does not occur. It seems that these conditions, in particular the first one, can be applied only to conventional acts. Indeed, it is reasonably clear that Austin's conditions are workable even with non-conventional acts. For example, the conventional condition is correct with the act of ordering as when a father orders his little son to do something.

In his turn, Searle (1969) presented another set of conditions. For a better understanding of these conditions, let us consider the following example:

e.g.: 'Thanks for your contribution'

The utterance consists of four conditions:

1) Propositional conditions: the addressee performs an act that requires 'thanking' (Searle, 1969), that is, the utterance proposes that there is a good action which leads the speaker to thank the addressee.

2) Preparatory conditions: speaker sees that the action is beneficial (ibid.). In other words, the speaker's utterance fulfills the circumstance as it shows that the act assists the speaker though it is not a part of the addressee's duty but a contribution, and thus it involves thank.

3) Sincerity conditions: speaker experiences the feeling of appreciation to addressee for the action, i.e., the real intention of the speaker (ibid.).

4) Essential conditions: the utterance expresses a speaker's gratitude (ibid.). The utterance should be a mirror of what is intended.

An utterance must propose that there is an action whether a past or future one (propositional condition); it has to comply with the appropriate circumstances such as the relationship between speaker and addressee (preparatory condition); it ought to convey and intend the communicated action (sincerity condition) and it should reflect the stated intention (essential condition) (Searle, 1969). In Searle's words: "The temptation is to say: the speaker implies the (satisfaction of the) preparatory conditions, expresses the (state specified in the) sincerity conditions, and says (whatever is specified by) the   essential condition." (1969, p.65).

2.1.3.4 Speech act set and speech event

On Austin and Searle's traces, studies continued and presented further issues in the theory of SA. Speech act set is one of these recent issues which was firstly introduced by Olshtain & Cohen (1983) (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991). It refers to a set of linguistic and pragmatic strategies that are used by native speakers (NSs) in performing a particular SA (ibid.). Put another way, what NSs employ as specific strategies to act a certain SA is the main concern of speech act set. Cohen (1996) defines the concept as

> The set of realization patterns typically used by native speakers of the
>
> target language, any of which would be recognized as the speech act in
>
> question, when uttered in the appropriate context (p.385).

The speech act set consists, then, of a set of semantic formulas that can make the speaker's illocutionary intent possible by respecting the pragmatic and situational factors (Cohen, 1996). Moreover, the speaker can call for one pattern from these semantic formulas hinging on the

appropriate factors or context. To give an example, a situation where being late is a serious problem in a given culture (pragmatic factor) and where there are particular situational factors such as addressee's age, social status, relationship between speaker and addressee, etc., a particular form is required. In this case, the speaker has to choose a special pattern from the speech act set of apology like 'apologizing and giving an explanation' with the appropriate modification as 'really' and 'very' in order to show the seriousness of his/her apology (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991). That is, different contexts imply different choices of semantic formulas (ibid.).

It is crucial to note that speech act set studies have received less attention than other areas of SA theory, though they are of great benefits to language teaching and material designing (ibid.).

Another issue in SA theory is 'speech event'. Hatch (1992) defines it as the occasions where a large discourse structure of SAs is required. In other words, a speech event refers to an organized combination of SAs in a discourse of a specific occasion (ibid.). For instance, the speech event of 'opening conversation' contains at least three SAs (greeting, post opening, and replying) (Edwards & Csizér, 2004). Speech event analysis means the scrutiny of how different SAs structure or order in a given speech event and how SA can be realized in a discourse (Hatch, 1992). Furthermore, the benefits of speech event analysis can be seen as illuminating the felicity conditions that are required for a particular SA and speech occasions (ibid.).

There are other discussed topics in the theory of SAs which are not tackled here mainly the distinction between the three levels of utterance (locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary). Also, it is important to note that the apparent subject where Austin and Searle's views diverged is the inference of illocutionary force (Coulthard, 1977). While Austin (1962) sees that it is a matter of recognizing speaker's intention, Searle (1969) clarifies that it is not an easy task to discover speaker's intention and thus the inference must be built on addressee's own

interpretation (Coulthard, 1977). In interpreting an utterance, one can either deduce speaker's intention as Austin (1962) claims or rely on his/her interpretation (Searle's view) (ibid.).

2.2 Pragmatics in EST writing

After explaining some of the issues discussed within pragmatics, it is high time to look at the relation between pragmatics and other fields, precisely, ESP and writing in general and between pragmatics and writing scientific research article in particular.

It is worth reminding, firstly, that ESP is a branch of ELT which is based mainly on the analysis of learners' needs in the target situation to design *ad hoc* courses and teaching materials (Munby, 1978; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Strevens, 1988; Robinson, 1991; Johns, 1991; Dudely-Evans & St.John, 1998, Dudely-Evans, 2001, and others). Secondly, EST is one of the main sub-categories of ESP which knows an active movement of research, particularly, in topics such as collaborative teaching, rhetorical features of scientific discourse, features of written genres and other topics (Johns, 1991; Parkinson, 2013)

2.2.1 Pragmatics and ESP

From an ESP perspective, pragmatics is a central focus of ESP studies (Widdowson, 1998 cited in Tarone, 2005). This focus is obvious in many points. First, pragmatics is needed to understand the term of ESP (Triki, 2002). Moreover, the proposition 'for' in the term 'English for Specific Purposes' holds an implicit meaning of language use rather than language usage (ibid.). That is to say, ESP is concerned with the English used for achieving specific communicative purposes of a discourse community and not with the way to be linguistically competent in English to serve specific purposes. So, it is pragmatic competence that leads to this interpretation by considering the level of illocutionary intent (ibid.).

A further appearance of pragmatics in the term is the use of zero article with the plural in 'purposes' (ibid.). This use creates the meaning of ESP variety of contexts and uses of English (ibid.). In more details, English has different uses for various purposes, that is, different contexts have different meanings. It is exactly what pragmatics calls for. Meaning is contextually constructed. Triki (2002) summarizes the point by saying: "… context-sensitivity and intentionality, which are fundamental to pragmatics, are constitutive of the very term ESP" (p.2).

Second, pragmatics was a station of ESP developments (Allen & Widdowson (1974) cited in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). ESP studies started by a focus on register analysis (ibid.). That is, researchers analyzed the linguistic features of English used in specific contexts (ibid.). Later on, some applied linguists, namely Allen and Widdowson (1974) noticed that this is not what learners need to learn English for. They argued that

> …their needs [learners']cannot be met by a course which simply provides further practice in the composition of sentences, but only by one which develops **a knowledge of how sentences are used in the performance of different communicative acts.** (Allen & Widdowson qtd. in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, pp.10-11).

This means that attention moved towards focusing on pragmatic features of particular genres (Johns, 1991). In other words, ESP teachers began to teach learners not merely the lexical features of different genres but also why and how to use them to perform different acts (ibid.). And this is the concern of pragmatics

Third, pragmatics has the connective role between pedagogical and professional contexts (Triki, 2002). It is undeniable that ESP investigates what learners need in the target situation in order to exploit these data in the course construction (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). That is, ESP course focuses on teaching learners the strategies that help them to participate

safely in their discourse community. Here, pragmatics is called into play as it describes how members of a discourse community do things with words, then it creates a connection between this communicative description (professional context) and what to teach to ESP learners (pedagogical context) (Triki, 2002). More precisely, pragmatics explains how utterances that are taught can acquire a certain meaning in a particular context (McCarthy, 2001). Triki (2002) claims that

> "The matching between language structure and social function is exactly
> the domain of pragmatics. In other words, pragmatics will be called upon to
> mediate between the customers [*sic*] needs identified through Needs
> Analysis and the linguistic structures taught in ESP" (p.2)

Additionally, ESP ultimate aim involves pragmatic competence (Basturkmen, 2006). It aims at promoting learners' communicative competence and different skills (ibid.). It is important to note that developing learners' communicative competence aids in developing skills and *vice versa* (Usó-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006). So, one can deduce that pragmatic competence as a component of communicative competence promotes ESP learners' skills (ibid.). That is, pragmatic competence can, for example, develop ESP learners' writing skill. For instance, if an ESP learner is pragmatically competent, this implies that s/he recognizes that an utterance has an illocutionary meaning and that s/he can encode this meaning by considering different elements of the context (Bachman, 1990). Thus, ESP learners can get their message across successfully and being good writers.

A further specific focus of ESP studies is Speech Acts. Moreover, Speech Acts occupy a crucial place in ESP (Widdowson, 1979; Martinez-Flor & Uso-Juan, 2006). Taking the three levels of utterance, ESP learners should be aware that an utterance expresses a locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary meanings and that the relation between the three is 'context and norm governed' (Basturkmen, 2006). In other words, it is the norms of a particular discourse

community that determine the appropriate locutionary act which is needed for the performance of a given illocutionary intent so as to have the intended perlocutionary effect on the addressee (ibid.). To illustrate the point, the norm of a business community entails that the speaker who intends to order the addressee to pay his/her invoice by means of a cheque (illocutionary intent) has to soften his/her expression in the form of a wish (locutionary act) by saying: *"[we] would be grateful if you could let us have a check for this amount."* (Triki, 2002, p.8). Such a form of utterance may help to avoid any communication breakdown (perlocutionary effect) (ibid.). ESP learners have, then, to acquire pragmatic competence in order to master the use of language in their occupations. As Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan (2006) summarize it: "…there has been increasing interest in analyzing learners' use of requests, suggestions and advice acts across different ESP disciplines" (p.23). In fact, this interest refers to the importance of speech acts such as describing, defining, etc. in ESP context like scientific domain (Widdowson, 1979).

From a pragmatic angle, a considerable body of ideas has been provided by ESP research (Tarone, 2005). ESP, in its turn, provides pragmatic research with methodologies of research (ibid.). Put another way, ESP studies make use of genre based analysis to examine different features used by a particular discourse community to accomplish their professional purposes (ibid.). Therefore, pragmatic studies can benefit from the concept of genre and discourse community to delimit the scope of pragmatic research (ibid.). By, studying pragmatic features of the discourse community learners belong to, pragmatic research can have a limited area to be studied rather than focusing on unlimited speech community among the worldwide Englishes (Tarone, 2005). More explicitly, the concentration on the performance of a certain discourse community facilitates the pragmatic research work. Further, it is widely known that pragmatic studies face difficulties of getting speaker's intention once describing speech community norms (ibid.). By the concept of genre and its exact purpose that is established by a

discourse community, pragmatic research can limit the speaker's intention. Hence, ESP tools of research can be of a great value to the domain of pragmatics (ibid.).

Through this explanation, one can agree with Widdowson (1998) that "the study of English for specific purposes is inherently a study in pragmatics" (Widdowson cited in Tarone, 2005, p.157).

2.2.2 Pragmatics in Writing

Pragmatic competence is a crucial element in effective writing (Usó-Juan *et al.*, 2006; Troia, 2011). It is important to note that writing is a 'contextualized activity' where situational factors such as degree of imposition, power, social distance, etc. as well as the writer's intention are unclear out of context (Usó-Juan *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, the provision of necessary elements that show the intended message and aid the reader to set the text in a context falls on the responsibility of the writer (ibid.). That is, the writer opts for other devices like punctuation, italics, deictic expressions, etc., to facilitate the readers' contextualization process. For example, the way of using deictic expressions such as pronouns can enable the reader to distinguish between the speaker's addressee (i.e. 2nd person) and the audience (i.e. 3rd person) in the text (Levinson, 1983). The same can be said about the exploitation of **bold** text that indicates the writer's intention to emphasize an idea for a particular reason. If a writer lacks the pragmatic use of punctuation, his/her text will lead the reader to the wrong context (Troia, 2011). This implies that certain devices are employed for pragmatic purpose, that is, to explain illocutionary force of utterances and thus create to the appropriate context for the text (Usó-Juan *et al.*, 2006).

A further pragmatic use in writing is presupposition (Troia, 2011). The writer should assume the readers' background knowledge, belief, culture, and so on in order to know where to start (ibid.). In other words, basing on what the reader is supposed to know and believe, the writer can provide certain information clues. But if a writer, who cannot estimate the reader's

knowledge, produces a text, the result may be a piece of writing that may contain either too much or too little information (Troia, 2011). Also, the text may comprise particular devices which cannot be decoded by the reader. Similarly, the ignorance of cooperative maxims may lead to ineffective writing (Mestro & Pastor, 2012). A writer's pragmatic competence is, then, the guide that directs him to the right decision about the appropriate way of writing (Usó-Juan *et al.*, 2006; Troia, 2011; Mestro & Pastor, 2012).

2.2.3 Pragmatics in EST writing

It is clear that pragmatics plays a crucial part in EST and writing. Hinging on these evidences, one can deduce that pragmatics occupies a considerable place in EST writing in general and in particular, writing research articles. That is, writing research articles, laboratory reports, design reports, etc, in the field of science and technology involve being pragmatically competent (Parkinson, 2013). In this area, several studies were carried out on pragmatic features of scientific genres (ibid.).

Though these studies may diverge in their focus on different genres or parts of genre, describing pragmatic features is their shared point. From a wider view, Zimmerman (1989) searches for the main speech acts that can be performed in scientific genres. She (ibid.) provides twelve SAs that characterize the scientific discourse and how they are employed by scientists.

Other writers seek out the specific use of pragmatic aspects in particular genres (Parkinson, 2013). Myers (1989), for instance, examines the aspect of politeness in writing scientific articles (cited in Parkinson, 2013). His focus was on the ways that can be used to criticize other researchers' claim without offending them. Similarly, Hyland (1998) describes the linguistic devices that are brought into play to soften the illocutionary force of utterances, that is, hedging process in writing scientific research articles. More clearly, he (ibid.) searchers for the specific use of hedging process in writing, i.e., the process of using some linguistic devices such

as modal verbs to express the writer's intention of reducing the strength of his/her claim or of presenting a new claim objectively. In sum, these studies prove that pragmatic ability has a key role in EST writing genres (Hyland, 1998; Parkinson, 2013)

2.2.4 Pragmatics in research article (RA) writing

One of the most discussed topics in EST writing is research article (Parkinson, 2013). Topics such as how to write a research article, its rhetorical structure, its specific language features, etc. have been the concern of many EST studies (Hyland, 1998; Cargill & Connor, 2009; Parkinson, 2013 and others). This focus given to research article and its structure seems logical as it has a crucial role in scientific discourse (Hyland, 1998). It is the means by which scientists report their new findings and relate these to the existing knowledge (ibid.). Writing an effective research article is, then, an urgent need for EST writers (Flowerdew, 2013). That is, they have to master the way scientific discourse community presents new experiment, judges previous studies, provides arguments in order to present them in a convincing way to the reader (ibid.).

In fact, knowing how to perform these steps requires a degree of pragmatic awareness (Troia, 2011; Flowerdew, 2013). In other words, writers who are able to use language appropriately can find writing scientific research article an easy task. For instance, the scientific discourse community makes use of some hedging devices to send the message that a claim is set with caution and the members of the community have the space to negotiate (Kourilova, 2012). Practically, if a writer ignores the different ways to encode the degree of certainty such as modal verbs, adverbs such as 'tentatively', verbs such as 'seem, appear, suggest' and their illocutionary intents, s/he may produce an inappropriate claim with a high assertive degree and thus the new experiment can be devalued (ibid.). The same can be said about the use of other devices like deictic and referring expressions, maxims of cooperation, presupposition, and so on.

In addition to pragmatic awareness, EST learners have to be aware of the rhetorical structure of RA and its different parts for their importance in effective writing (Flowerdew, 2013). Many EST researchers examine the rhetorical structure of different parts in research article. TsiYang (1999); Bruce (2008); Cargill and Connor (2009), among others, account for the main elements that should be included in different parts of a scientific article. Taking the abstract part as an illustration, Cargill and Connor (2009) point out that it is an important part in RA and the most frequently read part. For them, the abstract of scientific RA includes mainly five elements. The first element is the background information that explains the subject of the study and its main concepts. Next, the writer has to present the purpose of his/her study, the method used, the most important results, and finally a conclusion or recommendation (Cargill & Connor, 2009). Precisely, the abstract answers the why, the how and the what questions of the study (TsiYang, 1999). The why question refers to the purpose, the how to the method or materials used and the what aims to present the result and its interpretation or conclusion (ibid.). In fact, this rhetorical structure has a certain pragmatic interpretation in terms of the performed act (Zimmerman, 1989).

This implies that every discourse community has a specific use of linguistic devices and rhetorical structure with a certain illocutionary intent in writing research articles. In particular, the scientific discourse community has an intention behind any use of linguistic items somewhere in a research article. In sum, writing a research article with a pragmatic awareness of what scientists mean by a particular use with other language skills secure EST learners in the writing process (Hyland, 1998; Kourilova, 2012)

Conclusion

The emphasis in this chapter was on defining pragmatics and pragmatic competence with reviewing the aspects that are categorized under this field. Also, a brief account of Speech Act theory was presented. After that, the focus was on the relationship of pragmatics with other fields, namely ESP and writing. At the end, the role of pragmatics in EST writing was accounted for.

It is worthwhile to point out that the core of any pragmatic study is the consideration of language user and the 'speech situation'. The pragmatic meaning of any utterance implies the focus on who is talking to whom, when, why, how, where and for what purpose. Practically, to encode his/her illocutionary intent in an utterance, a speaker needs, for example, to consider the addressee's background knowledge and beliefs (presupposition), to create a context by the use of the appropriate deictic and referring expressions and to choose his/her words according to the relation between him/her and the addressee (politeness). So is the case with the writer. S/he has to take the reader and context into consideration mainly in an ESP writing context where special discourse community norms have to be observed.

Therefore, for effective EST writing, learners have to be pragmatically competent (Hyland, 1998; Parkinson, 2013). This means that they should be able to perform communicative acts appropriately and to accomplish different academic purposes. Since pragmatic competence occupies a vital role in EST writing, it would be interesting to investigate the ways pragmatic competence can be developed so as to aid EST learners in writing effective research articles. Searching for the strategies that enable EST learners writing appropriately is our next point.

Chapter Three: Teaching Pragmatics

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Chapter Three: Teaching pragmatics

Introduction

As discussed in chapter two, pragmatic competence is a key contributor to effective writing (Hyland, 1998). That is, having the ability to choose the appropriate meaning that guides to the intended message by paying attention to presupposed reader, situational factors, politeness markers, etc. can ensure an intelligible piece of writing by EST learners (Ishihara & Cohen, 2009). EST learners have, then, to acquire a degree of pragmatic sensitivity in order to produce appropriate texts as their scientific discourse community requires. But, failure to do so may lead to a serious problem in communication (Judd, 1999). Research reveals that many cases of communication breakdown and refusal of papers are due to pragmatic incompetence (Flowerdew, 2013).

Pragmatics has begun to receive more attention in language teaching after a long period of neglect (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). Teachers and material designers focus more and more on ways to develop EST learners' pragmatic competence so as to avoid any pragmatic failure and to write effectively (Kasper, 1997; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). Studies suggest that a consciousness raising approach to teaching pragmatic aspects which combines explicit and implicit teaching is likely to raise EST learners' pragmatic awareness (Schmidt, 1993; Kasper, 1997; Judd, 1999; and others).

Based on the assumption that one can better understand a subject by examining cases of its malfunction (Celce-Murcia, 1995), the current chapter starts by discussing EST learners' pragmatic failure, its types and the main causes that stand behind it. Let us begin with pragmatic failure to show the importance of pragmatic competence in communication. Next, the focus is on explaining the main cause of failure. Elucidating, first, different issues about explicit and implicit teaching, pragmatic teaching in L1 and L2 contexts, a methodology of teaching pragmatics is

then suggested. Finally, the chapter presents an account of the issue of assessing EST learners' pragmatic competence in writing RA.

3.1 Pragmatic failure

A question usually asked by EST teachers 'why do learners often fail to write and speak in a way acceptable to the scientific discourse community'(House, 1993; Troia, 2011; Kourilova, 2012). In fact, EST learners face difficulties in writing and speaking effectively according to their discourse community norms (ibid.). Miller (1974) maintains that communication breakdowns are mostly due to misunderstanding of the intended message (Miller qtd. in Thomas, 1983). That is, EST learners' unsuccessful way of interpreting what a speaker means by a certain utterance is the main source of difficulties in communication.

For Thomas (1983), this lack is traced back to pragmatic failure. For her, pragmatic failure is "the inability to understand what is meant by what is said" (p.91). Put another way, pragmatic failure refers to a situation where an addressee does not grasp the addresser's message. In the context of writing, for instance, an EST learner who is unable to encode his/her intended message clearly, s/he pragmatically fails to write effectively (Troia, 2011; Kourilova, 2012). Also, if a writer fails to assume the reader's knowledge, s/he will fail pragmatically, leading the reader to misunderstand his/her message (ibid.).

Overall, most studies carried out in different areas of pragmatics reveal that FL learners are pragmatically incompetent (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991; Cohen, 1996; Kasper, 1997; and others). That is, they cannot perform communicative acts appropriately (ibid.). In the area of speech acts, Basturkmen, (2006) points out that learners usually act out speech acts in an inappropriate way; a situation which leads to communication impediment. She states that

Research has shown that despite high level of grammatical competence, non-native

speakers may still have difficulties in communication because of a lack of ability to

express speech acts appropriately (Basturkmen, 2006, p.51)

This means that learners succeed in constructing and treating utterances grammatically but they cannot make sense of their illocutionary intent (Kasper, 1997). In trying to explain this failure, Kasper (1997) argues that "L2 recipients often tend towards literal interpretation, taking utterance at face value rather than inferring what is meant from what is said and underusing information" (p.3). That is, learners neglect the contextual clues that aid them in grasping the intended meaning. For example, learners may treat an utterance literally and fail to infer the indirect 'order' as they do not know how to exploit the degree of power imposition between interlocutors which is encoded in the use of the modal verb 'must'.

The same observation has been recorded by most studies in the context of ESP (Clenell, 1999; Basturkmen, 2006; Troia, 2011; Flowerdew, 2013, and others). Researchers notice that EST learners are unable to produce utterances appropriate to the norms of their discourse community because of pragmatic unawareness (ibid.).

3.1.1. Types of pragmatic failure

Thomas (1983) identifies two types of pragmatic failure.

3.1.1.1 Pragmalinguistic failure

For Thomas (1983) pragmalinguistic failure "occurs when the pragmatic force mapped on to a linguistic token or structure is systematically different from that normally assigned to it by native speakers" (p.101). More clearly, learners fail pragmalinguistically when they encode a certain illocutionary force in an utterance while native speakers intend another act with the same structure. That is, when the function of a structure in TL differs from its function in MT, a

pragmalinguistic failure may occur. For example, in English, the utterance 'can you X' (Thomas, 1983, p.101) refers to a 'request' whereas to a French learner, it conveys a question of ability to do X similar to their Mother Tongue use (ibid.). Arabic speakers of English, for instance, reply to a thank by the phrase 'never mine' which means in their MT use 'not at all' while NSs utilize the expression of 'never mind' to answer an excuse.

Pragmalinguistic failure can stem from the transfer of strategies used to perform speech acts in MT to TL (Thomas, 1983). Learners may ignore TL use. For this reason, they opt for their own use. For Thomas (ibid.), this type of failure is easy to repair as it involves only an understanding of the conventional way of using language in TL. That is, it is 'linguistically determined'. This means that the problem of learners in this type is in the form and its associated function. The following conversation provides a clear example of pragmalinguistic failure. In this situation, A is an English speaker and B a Polish man. They are traveling by train. As an attempt to soften communication, A says: *"A: I wonder how many trees are in Poland*

B: I cannot imagine who would want to know that" (Ferndàndez Amaya, 2008, p.18).

In this example, A transfers the way of 'opening' conversation from his MT (English) to the TL (Polish). B, in his turn, interprets the utterance literally as a 'question' that requires an answer rather than considering the illocutionary intent of A. As a consequence, a pragmalinguistic failure happens (ibid.). To avoid such a failure, a need to learn the appropriate way of performing the act of 'opening' in Polish is required for the English speaker.

3.1.1.2 Sociopragmatic failure

Sociopragmatic failure takes place when there is a difference between the 'social perception' of MT and TL (Thomas, 1983). The difference in what is considered as an appropriate behavior and which sociolinguistic factors to regard in pragmatic choice between MT

and TL may lead to sociopragmatic failure (ibid.). To illustrate the point, a sociopragmatic miscalculation may result from learners' use of MT social judgment in assessing the social distance between interlocutors or size of imposition which are different from TL perception (ibid.). Further, Thomas (1983) argues that the requirement of an understanding of the target culture as well as the sensitivity in judging learners' own perception make the sociopragmatic failure a difficult area of repair. Indeed, this is 'culturally determined', that is, its problem lies in the different social judgments (ibid.).

To better understand this type, let us consider the following example where Li Ming, a Chinese woman, is talking to her NS colleague:

"Li Ming: you are putting on weight recently, aren't you?

Miss Green: it's none of your business" (Xiaohong, 1994, p.31)

Here, the topics which are counted as private matters differ in the Chinese and English cultures respectively (ibid.). That is, Li Ming performs the act from a Chinese cultural background where asking about weight is not a private topic and a colleague relationship implies a near social distance, while in the English culture things differ (ibid.). Similarly, in some cultures such as Arabic, different settings imply different social distances between the same participants while in other cultures the social distance remains the same regardless of the setting. So, an Arabic speaker of another language may sociopragmatically fail through applying different social distances.

Accordingly, it is necessary to build learners' metapragmatic ability, that is, "the ability to analyze language use in a conscious manner" (Thomas, 1983, p.98) so as to be able to distinguish between two types of pragmatic failure. The distinction is necessary, as it facilitates for learners the process of correcting their pragmalinguistic failure and discussing the sociopragmatic one

(ibid.). As a first step, EST teachers have to look for the causes of this lack (Thomas, 1983; El-Okda, 2011). It is this point that is tackled next.

3.1.2 Causes of EST learners' pragmatic failure

Discovering EST learners' pragmatic failure is not the ultimate point. Rather it should be considered as the impetus that leads teachers to search for different causes that lie behind this failure (Thomas, 1983). Some of the domains where these causes may stem from are set below:

1/ Pragmatic research

Despite the lateness which characterizes pragmatic research in comparison with other areas of language study, a considerable body of studies has discussed pragmatic issues (Judd, 1999; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). But just few of them are designed for teaching purposes (Judd, 1999). That is, most of pragmatic studies inquire about the subject of pragmatics and aspects of pragmatic inquiry but ignore the question of how these aspects can be applied in the classroom (ibid.). Judd (1999) accounts for this neglect by stating

> Ironically, although while much research on pragmatics has appeared in the literature in the past few decades, little of it is addressed to classroom instructors who need to devise and implement practical teaching strategies for their classrooms beyond a general caveat to somehow include this information in a teaching curriculum" (P.168)

In addition, pragmatic studies have focused more on some aspects such as politeness, speech acts and spoken mode, neglecting to some extent other aspects which are of equal importance to the teaching process, i.e., pragmatic acquisition, pragmatic testing methods and written mode, etc. (Liu, 2006; Ellis, 2012). This means that pragmatic teaching process is in need for more practical studies (Judd, 1999).

2/Teaching curricula

Overall, teaching curricula at tertiary level ignore pragmatic aspects in their design (Kasper, 1997; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). That is, curricula do not include lectures on functions and on other pragmatic themes. Other language areas such as grammar, vocabulary and syntax are the main subjects taught at school without any pragmatic dimension (ibid.). Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor (2003) report that "these areas of language and language use [i.e. speech acts, conversational implicature, etc.] have not traditionally been addressed in language teaching curricula" (p.37). In fact, such curricula can result in learners paying no attention to language use norms (Kasper, 1997).

3/ Teaching pragmatics

Teaching pragmatic aspects is no easy task (Rose, 1999; Fernendez-Amaya, 2008). Since pragmatic norms are subconscious and indeterminate, describing and teaching them is no easy task for teachers (Thomas, 1983; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). In other words, difficulties in teaching pragmatics lie in the fact that pragmatic norms differ from one situation to another, i.e. they are indeterminate and that native speakers cannot describe their language use explicitly as these norms are subconscious (ibid.). Another difficulty in teaching pragmatics is the evaluation of pragmatic development mainly the sociopragmatic one (Ellis, 2012). It cannot be clear to the teacher whether learners are judging those sociolinguistic factors such as relative power, size of imposition, social distance, etc. appropriately in performing an act as it has been taught or rather it is matter of a positive transfer (ibid.). That is, it can be understood that learners treat factors aptly due to their sociopragmatic knowledge while it is a matter of chance or L1 positive transfer.

On the other hand, the teaching process in itself may sometimes be a source of pragmatic failure due to the techniques used (Thomas, 1983). Truly, there are some teaching techniques

that lead to learners' pragmatic failure. The classroom discourse usually requires learners to provide a complete answer which violates the pragmatic principle of 'quantity and economy' (ibid.). As a result of these difficulties, little attention is given to pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Fernendez-Amaya, 2008; Ellis, 2012). Fernendez-Amaya (2008) maintains that "…, L2 teachers often overlook pragmatics, due to the difficulty of its teaching, and instead focus on the grammatical aspects of language" (p.12). But it is crucial to draw attention that by providing detailed pragmatic studies and well structured teaching strategies, the task of teaching pragmatics can be more easily managed (Judd, 1999).

4/Pre-service and in-service programmes

Pre-service and in-service programmes provide little and inexplicit pragmatic information for teachers (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003, El-Okda, 2011). This means that educational programmes do not prepare teachers to teach pragmatics. As a result, teachers find difficulties in instructing pragmatic aspects to learners (Rose, 1999). In an attempt to rate the degree to which educational programmes train teachers for teaching pragmatics, Cohen (2008) notes that "most programs investigated rarely provide information about pragmatics or pragmatic knowledge instruction and assessment" (Cohen cited in El-Okda, 2011, p.179). As a result, teachers ignore their roles in teaching pragmatic (Kasper, 1999). That is, teachers may start by supplying new pragmatic information instead of drawing learners' attention to what learners have as a universal or free knowledge and teaching them how to exploit it (ibid.).

5/ Corrective feedback (CF)

When learners produce inappropriate utterances, they often receive no corrective feedback (CF) from their teachers so as to modify their pragmatic knowledge (Chavez de Castro, 2005). For instance, teachers may correct their learners in using 'has' instead of 'have' with the

pronoun 'she' but not to use the utterance ' I beg your pardon' instead of 'sorry' in the case of not hearing well (Hornby et al., 2005). Bardovi-Harlig & Hatford (1996) claim that

> …, if no CF is provided to learners as to how inappropriate their utterances have been and how to make them more appropriate, it is likely [sic] they will not realize the need to modify their production. (Bardovi-Harlig & Hatford qtd. in Chevez de Castro, 2005, p.282)

Searching for the reasons behind this absence of feedback, researchers suggest that teachers may neither be able to observe pragmatic failure (Mestro & Pastor, 2012) nor to distinguish between pragmalinguistic failure which should be corrected and sociopragmatic one that requires discussion for its sensitivity to learners (Thomas, 1983). It does not matter, in fact, what the reasons can be, the essence is to discover and make learners understand that there is a pragmatic gap.

6/ Differences among languages

It is undeniable that there are differences among languages in terms of linguistic encoding and social judgment (Kasper & Bulm-kulka, 1993; House, 1993; Taguchi, 1993; Yule, 1996 a; Cohen, 1996 and others). In fact, these differences may be the source of pragmatic failure (ibid.). Variation in linguistic encoding of functions among languages reveal that there are difficult areas in learning (Taguchi, 1993). To illustrate the point, Russian learners of English, for example, are required to know that English contains other forms of 'obligation' such as 'must, should, ought to, etc', unlike Russian which makes use of only 'to be to' (Thomas, 1983). Otherwise, the Russian learner of English will use 'to be to' in all situations, while it is usually used only in the case of unequal power relationship, and thus a pragmatic failure occurs (ibid.).

Further, societies differ in judging social perception and values (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). That is, social values including relative power, social distance, taboos, size of imposition,

etc. that affect pragmatic choice differ from one culture to another (ibid.). For example, in some cultures, an old person has a high social status and relative power and thus talking to him or her involves a careful choice of forms with a degree of politeness, while in other cultures, the age is not at all a determining factor of pragmatic choice (Thomas, 1983). Kasper and Bulm-Kulka (1993) point out that sometimes learners' sensitivity to their social values leads them to neglect TL values. On some occasions, learners act against TL social norms not because of their ignorance but because these norms conflict with their own social ones such as taboo topics (ibid.). Kasper and Bulm-Kulka (1993) express the point by reporting that "… even purposeful loyalty to L1 cultural patterns, may yield deviations from native use…" (p.7)

7/ Materials for teaching pragmatics

Designing materials for teaching pragmatics is a big issue (Widdowson, 1979; Olshtain & Cohen, 1991; Edwards & Cizer, 2004). There is a lack of pragmatic teaching materials (ibid.). Textbooks lack relevant input that is needed in the teaching of different pragmatic aspects (ibid.). Olshtain and Cohen (1991) posit that "it may, at this stage, be difficult to find sufficient material on the various speech acts and on the cross-cultural differences that exist between languages" (p.164). Widdowson (1979), in his turn, claims that the materials which address the knowledge of language alone cannot satisfy the learners' pragmatic needs. Alemi and Razzaghi (2012) clarify that even ESP textbooks disregard this area. They state that

> The lack of this pragmatic input especially in ESP textbooks in which learners are to master the English in order to be able to communicate in an international business context can lead to inappropriate development of communicative competence" (p.109)

There is, then, a pressing need for teaching materials that treat different pragmatic aspects (Widdowson, 1979).

8/ The existing pragmatic materials

It is necessary to note that even existing materials usually comprise inaccurate or isolated examples (Judd, 1999; Cohen, 1996). That is, the available input is far from real language use. This hinders the building of learners' sensitivity to sociolinguistic distinction in TL (ibid.). Judd (1999) notices that

> Many texts do not include examples of speech acts that are representative of naturally occurring discourse or the examples are often inaccurate or limited in regard to sociolinguistic variables (p.157).

Further, there are some teaching materials that focus only on developing learners' pragmalinguistic knowledge (Kasper, 1997; Basturkmen, 2006; Alcon Soler & Martinez-Flor, 2008). These materials aim to construct learners' linguistic background of how to realize different speech acts, giving scant attention to building up their sociopragmatic knowledge, i.e. how to perform acts appropriately (ibid.). This partial emphasis generates learners who treat utterances literally and neglect their illocutionary intent (Kasper, 1997). Basturkmen (2006) reports that

> It has been noted that some speech-act-based courses and materials target pragmalinguistics with the aim of equipping learners with the linguistic sources to make a number of speech acts and to do so more or less politely and directly, but neglect sociopragmatic aspects (p.51)

9/ Linguistic proficiency

Linguistic proficiency plays a crucial role in performing acts flexibly in different contexts (Ellis, 2012). A considerable linguistic knowledge enables learners to make use of the appropriate strategies to the given contextual factors (ibid.). A lack of such proficiency may hinder learners' ability to adjust their linguistic forms in different situations, i.e. to fail pragmatically (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991; Kasper & Bulm-Kulka, 1993; Ellis, 2012). For instance, a learner who agrees to the

speaker's request of appointment by saying 'yeah, that's right' as if s/he is evaluating the speaker's utterance, pragmatically fails to provide the appropriate answer, i.e. 'ok' or 'fine' because of his /her lack of linguistic proficiency (House, 1993). Kasper & Blum-Kulka (1993) state that "the main obstacle to learners' exploiting their general pragmatic knowledge base … appears to be their restricted L2 linguistic knowledge, or difficulty in accessing it smoothly" (p.7).

10/ Pragmatic transfer

FL learners tend to transfer the pragmatic knowledge such as speech act strategies and social perception from their MT to the TL (Kasper, 1997; Rose & Kasper, 2001; Basturkmen, 2006; Ellis, 2012). In other words, learners make a negative transfer of their native pragmatic norms to the TL use (ibid.). As an illustration, NS usually use an indirect strategy to order a stranger, while EFL learners opt for a direct strategy as they may do in their MT (Yule, 1996 a). In TL, this implies that the learners have more 'social power' than the stranger. Further, Arab learners of English tend to transfer the way of answering compliments in their MT to the TL that utilizes another strategy. They, therefore, fail pragmatically to use language appropriately (ibid.). On these premises, Olshtain and Cohen (1991) report that "the results revealed situations in which EFL deviations from cultural patterns appeared to be a result of negative transfer from the first language" (pp.162-163).

In this regard, researchers, including Kasper, 1997; Yule, 1996 a; Rose and Kasper, 2001 and others, stress that learners possess a considerable amount of free pragmatic knowledge (i.e. universal pragmatic knowledge) they could exploit in TL (positive transfer). Languages share some features such as the three types of request (direct, indirect, and hints) or the significance of silence in conversation (Yule, 1996 a). But learners usually do not exploit or transfer their free pragmatic knowledge from their MT to TL (Kasper, 1997; Rose & Kasper, 2001). The causes

behind this inability may be due either to the learners' lack of linguistic proficiency that enables them to express universal features in the TL or to their ignorance of such a free knowledge (Ellis, 2012). Rose and Kasper (2001) describe this situation saying that

> Unfortunately, learners do not always capitalize on the knowledge they already have. It is well known from educational psychology that students do not always transfer available knowledge and strategies to new tasks. This is also true for some aspects of learners' universal or L1- based pragmatic knowledge (p.6)

11/ Contextual factors and pragmatic 'errors'

Learners always raise the issue of "how we recognize what is meant even when it isn't actually said or written" (Yule, 1996 b, p.127). That is to say, learners wonder about the way to grasp the speaker's intended meaning (ibid.). In trying to answer this question, Yule (1996 a) and Kasper (1997) insist that speaker or writer showed hinging on shared knowledge, some contextual clues that help the listener or reader to infer the conveyed meaning. But the problem is that learners neglect such contextual clues and sometimes ignore the connotation of some shared clues (House, 1993; Yule, 1996 a; Kasper, 1997). In the case of writing, for instance, learners do not pay attention to the writer's use of certain verbs such as 'seem, appear' and not others such as 'can, could' which convey an implicit meaning concerning 'degree of imposition' (Hyland, 1998).

Another cause of pragmatic failure (House, 1993; Troia, 2011) is learners' ignorance of shared meaning of certain clues. Practically, if a learner ignores the communicative intent behind the use of, say, inverted commas, s/he will not grasp what is meant by putting the word 'errors' in the present subtitle between inverted commas. This means that the word is either inappropriate to the context or borrowed. In this case, the word 'errors' is inappropriate to the context of pragmatics. As Thomas (1983) claims that since pragmatic norms are indeterminate, an action

cannot be judged as pragmatically correct or wrong but rather appropriate to the norms or not. Another example of learners' ignorance of contextual factors is their lack of knowledge about the negative connotation of some phrases like 'does not matter' which is used to reduce the importance of something (House, 1993). Kasper (1997) summarizes the point by stating that "L2 recipients often tend towards literal interpretation… and underusing context information" (p.3).

In addition, learners not only neglect contextual clues but also pragmatic 'errors' (Kasper, 1997). In fact, both teachers and learners do not take pragmatic errors seriously (ibid.). Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1998) see that teachers and learners give much more importance to grammatical errors than to pragmatic ones (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei cited in Edwards, 2003). They state that "…EFL learners and their teachers tend to undervalue the seriousness of pragmatic mistakes and consistently ranked grammatical errors as more serious than pragmatic errors…" (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei (1998) cited in Edwards, 2003, p.41).

Concerning the different causes that may lead to pragmatic failure, one can notice that some of these causes have relation with the lack of explicit teaching. That is, the reasons behind pragmatic failure can be classified either as the inappropriate atmosphere for explicit teaching namely, problems in, say, pragmatic research, teaching curriculum, pre-service and in-service programs, and teaching materials. Or, they may be due to a lack of explicit pragmatic teaching with all its aspects such as corrective feedback, pragmatic transfer, neglect of contextual factors and others. It is clear that the main cause of learners' pragmatic failure in using language appropriately in general and in performing acts for writing is due to the lack of explicit teaching. Writing an abstract is no exception, in this connection. It appears that flouting pragmatic norms is the main factor of failure of communicating *via* this mode.

3.2 Explicit and implicit teaching

As noted above, the lack of explicit instruction in pragmatics is the obvious cause of pragmatic failure. Here, it is crucial to understand what explicit and implicit types of instruction are and what each one of them involves. In accounting for explicit instruction, Ellis (2009) starts from the key concept of 'instruction' or teaching. She (ibid.) defines it as "an attempt to intervene in interlanguage development" (Ellis, 2009, p.16). According to her, to instruct implies to become involved in a situation of interlanguage development for the sake of adjusting it (ibid.). This intervention can be direct or indirect. An indirect intervention refers to the process of providing learners with the conditions that aid them to learn language experientially. In essence, learners acquire language rules by practising different tasks on how to communicate in L2 (ibid.). On the other hand, in instructing as a direct intervention, there is a specification of what should be learnt (ibid.). Direct intervention requires from teachers, course and material designers to structure a syllabus that clearly determines what is to be taught.

On the basis of this characterization, Ellis (2009) classifies the two types of instruction, i.e., implicit and explicit, under direct intervention. This means that in implicit and explicit types of teaching, the content of the course is carefully specified (ibid.). Teachers in both types of instruction plan previously how the process of learning SL will be achieved (see Figure 2, p. 69). The main difference between implicit and explicit teaching is related to learners' awareness (Schmidt, 1993). Implicit instruction involves teaching learners the rules of language without being aware of the process, while in explicit instruction, learners know what is being taught and for what purpose (Ellis, 2009; Annita & Charles, 2011). Moreover, the focus of the teaching process is deliberately said and achieved explicitly, whereas in the case of implicit teaching the focus is achieved implicitly and without being said (Schmidt, 1993). There are other differences between the two types (see Table 1, p. 69).

To this point, one can say that explicit teaching is a direct intervention in the process of teaching with learners' awareness being raised as to the goal of this intervention (Schmidt, 1993; Ellis, 2009).

Practically, explicit instruction can be realized in two ways, deductively or inductively (Ellis, 2009). Using a deductive method in explicit teaching implies starting with a knowledge or rule explanation and moving to the examples and practice (ibid.). Conversely, an inductive method makes use of examples and practical tasks to explain the projected rule (ibid.). So, any study that consists of rule explanation, whether as a starting point or as a result of practice can be classified under explicit teaching.

Pragmatic explicit teaching, then, means the direct involvement in learners' acquisition of language by providing explanation about how language user or discourse community uses language in certain settings. It is the process of specifying and drawing learners' attention to the pragmatic features that should be learnt and how they are used. Aiming at improving learners' ability to use language appropriately in a specific context by supplying different tasks and communicative activities and without learners' awareness of the main purpose, a teacher is said to teach pragmatics implicitly. That is, implicit pragmatic teaching is the process of capturing learners' attention to particular pragmatic aspects without being openly the focus of the course or the purpose of the learners
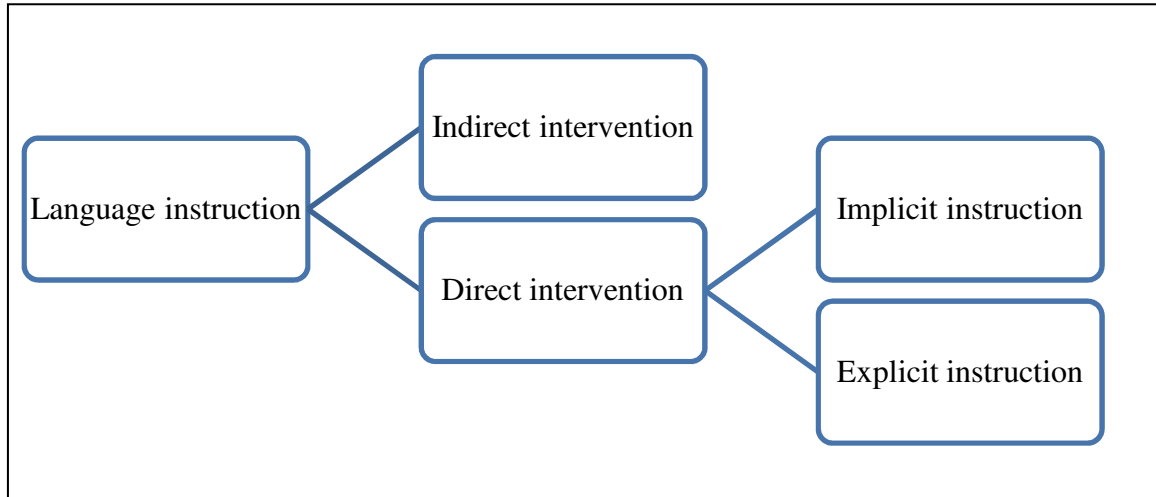
Figure 2. Types of language instruction (Ellis, 2009, p.17)

Implicit FFI	Explicit FFI
attracts attention to target form	directs attention to target form
is delivered spontaneously (e.g. in an otherwise communication-oriented activity)	is determined and planned (e.g. as the main focus and goal of a teaching activity)
is unobtrusive (minimal interruption of communicative meaning)	is obtrusive (interruption of communicative meaning)
presents target forms in context	presents target forms in isolation
makes no use of metalanguage	uses metalinguistic terminology (e.g. rule explanation)
encourages free use of the target form.	involves controlled practice of target form.

Table 1. The differences between implicit and explicit instruction (Housen & Pierrard, 2006 cited in Ellis, 2009, P. 18)

3.3 Teaching pragmatics

Pragmatic aspects can be taught explicitly to enhance pragmatic competence (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; Cohen, 1996; Judd, 1999; Rose & Kasper, 2001, Bardovi-Harlig & Hatford, 2005; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010 and others). In order to avoid pragmatic failure, EST learners

have to develop their pragmatic competence, that is, their pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge of TL, effectively *via* explicit teaching (ibid.). In other words, the effective classroom teaching of, say, speech acts can raise learners' ability to express and understand appropriate utterances. More clearly, explaining to learners explicitly how to realize a particular speech act linguistically and sociolinguistically shows that it is a successful way of developing learners' pragmatic competence and of avoiding pragmatic failure (ibid.). Kasper and Rose (2002) support this view by claiming that "without exception learners receiving instruction in pragmatics outperformed those who did not" (Kasper & Rose qtd. in Marra, 2013, p.181).   Schmidt (1993), in his turn, insists that to learn SL pragmatics "attention to linguistic forms, functional meanings and the relevant contextual features is required" (p.34). That is, drawing learners' attention to pragmatic aspects is a necessary step for a safe pragmatic performance.

Before tackling the methodology of teaching L2 pragmatics, some assumptions on L1 pragmatic acquisition have to be explained and explored in L2 pragmatic learning situation. In acquiring L1 pragmatic 'principles', caregivers have an active role of instructing children how language should be used (Schmidt, 1993; Bialystok, 1993; Ellis, 2012). So, in order for a child to learn, caregivers intervene to account for the most appropriate form or behavior in a given context (ibid.). This does not mean that children have a passive role but a secondary one. After the caregivers' clarification of some principles that organize language use, children begin to notice and analyze input for the sake of expanding their linguistic resources and understanding the relation between forms and sociolinguistic factors (ibid.). L1 pragmatic acquisition, then, requires caregiver' instruction of pragmatic principles as well as children's analysis of more specific forms (Bialystok, 1993)

Drawing on L1 pragmatic acquisition insights, a particular role is assigned to teachers and learners in L2 pragmatic learning (Cohen, 1996; Kasper, 1997). Here, it is important to note that learners' background contains a free pragmatic knowledge (Kasper, 1997). A case in a point is

the regular use of adjectives like 'nice or good' in making compliments, which is widely known (Cohen, 1996). Therefore, the teachers' role is to draw explicitly learners' attention to what they posses as the available pragmatic knowledge and to the appropriate behavior in L2 use (Kasper, 1997). Teachers, then, should instruct their learners on how to employ this background knowledge aptly in their performance of target communication acts (ibid.). Kasper (1997) elucidates teachers' role by claiming that

> There is thus a clear role for pedagogic intervention, here, not with the purpose of providing learners with new information but to make them aware of what they know already and encourage them to use their universals or transferable L1 pragmatic knowledge in L2 contexts. (p. 3)

Learners, on their part, are required to participate in their learning of pragmatic norms through holding comparison between their native way of performing, say, different speech acts and the target one (Cohen ,1996). In other words, learners' role is to notice the input, analyze it in terms of similarities and differences in comparison with their MT and thus to understand L2 pragmatic principles. Cohen (1996) expresses this role by clarifying that "the role of the learners is to notice similarities and differences between the way that native speakers perform such speech acts and the way that they do…" (p.412). As a matter of fact, these assigned roles to teachers and learners and the fact that pragmatic aspects can be taught remain true for the adopted approaches to teaching (Kasper, 1997). This implies that different approaches to teaching pragmatics agree on the role of teachers and learners and the assumption that instruction can raise learners' pragmatic awareness (ibid.).

For L2 pragmatic learning, Kasper, (1997); Judd, (1999), Rose and Kasper (2001), and other researchers point out that explicit teaching is the most efficient way to pragmatic development. Schmidt (1993) and Rose (1999) add that explicit teaching is a stage forward in pragmatic learning but not the only one. They argue that by explicit teaching, learners construct a

pragmatic repertoire; however, they cannot get access to this repertoire smoothly in using language. The first stage in the acquisition of pragmatics is explicit teaching of pragmatic aspects and general principles. As a second stage, Schmidt (1993) suggests the task-based teaching, that is, implicit teaching of more specific principles of L2 pragmatics.

Through explicit teaching, teachers direct learners' attention to the general principles of pragmatics, i.e., to different forms used to perform a certain act and how sociolinguistic factors determine this choice (Judd, 1999). Learners, in this stage, will be endowed with the general framework where pragmatic aspects work. This can help them to notice and analyze an input (ibid.). In the second stage, teachers provide some tasks on more specific principles such as how determining sociolinguistic factors change in different situations and how they are interpreted in terms of linguistic choices (Schmidt, 1993). Relying on what has been consciously learned, learners have to notice the input and grasp the particular use of forms in a specific context without explicit instruction from teachers. That is, it is a planned teaching process but without learners being aware of it (i.e. implicit teaching). In fact, this is the consciousness-raising approach to teaching pragmatics which calls for a combination of explicit and implicit teaching as they have a 'synergistic' relationship, in the sense that their grouped energy is more effective (ibid.). That is, both types of teaching can produce an extra energy by working together (ibid.). Consciousness-raising approach will be the focus of the next section.

3.3.1 Teaching methodology

Based on the consciousness-raising approach which cultivates a connection between explicit and implicit teaching and basing on Judd's model (1999) of teaching pragmatics, the present work suggests a teaching methodology of pragmatic aspects, in general, and of speech acts, in particular. It comprises three main stages (see Figure 3, p.76)

3.3.1.1 Specification of the teaching content

Since explicit and implicit types of teaching stem from direct intervention in the learning process (see Figure 2, p.69), it is logical that the specification of what should be learned is the first stage in the present method. In other words, direct intervention implies the determination of content (Ellis, 2009). At this stage, the teacher needs to specify the speech act to be taught on the basis of his/her learners' needs in the target situation (Judd, 1999). S/He has to relate the research findings about the needed speech act to the learning environment such as the routinized forms of the speech act, its combination with other acts (the speech event needed in this learning situation), its specific forms, etc.(ibid.). That is, the teacher's role is to match the target situation features (i.e., when, where, with whom, and for what purpose learners have to perform the speech act) with the required speech act findings (ibid.). The learners' discourse community, for example, may consider the 'academic status' as the determining factor in their communication. The teacher, here, needs to seek for the linguistic forms that reflect this factor in terms of level of formality, directness, and politeness and for the way each of these features are linguistically to be translated (Ishihara, 2010).

3.3.1.2 Explicit teaching

The next stage, after choosing the speech act to be taught, aims at enriching the learners' cognitive awareness of the realization of these speech acts (Judd, 1999). That is to say, learners' linguistic and sociolinguistic knowledge about the way the chosen speech act can be realized is explicitly taught. This stage is divided into two steps (ibid.).In the first step, the teacher starts by providing learners with linguistic forms that are required for the performance of an appropriate speech act in a more general context (Judd, 1999; Rose & Kasper (2002) cited in Ellis, 2012). This step aims at the building of the primary linguistic repertoire needed for the performance of any act (ibid.). Simultaneously, the teacher accounts for the different sociolinguistic factors that

affect the choice of forms (ibid.). It is in this step that learners construct the general pragmatic principles that speech acts have different forms and that sociolinguistic factors of the situation such as age, gender, social distance, social status, relative power, etc. regulate the linguistic choice. Similar to the EFL context, this stage in EST context can result in learners recognizing the linguistic forms of a certain speech act and the effect of the sociolinguistic factors on their choice. It is true that this stage teaches general pragmatic principles but this does not hinder the provision of natural occurring examples (Judd, 1999).

The second step offers the learners an opportunity to identify the speech act under study when it occurs within the target situation i.e. in their target context (ibid.). Moreover, the teacher explains to learners the order of sociolinguistic factors in their discourse community and its linguistic realization (ibid.). At this step, learners are explicitly informed that their discourse community considers the academic status of speaker the determining factor of linguistic choice. It means that if the speaker is a teacher who has a high academic level, s/he has the right to perform, say, an order with less polite, direct or informal forms (Ishihara, 2010). Another discourse community may give to the interlocutors' social distance or age the directive role (ibid.). Further, this step does not only aim to improve the learners' pragmatic awareness about their discourse community use but also their ability to grasp the sociolinguistic factors from contextualized linguistic forms in a discourse (Judd, 1999).

The same aim can be achieved with EST learners. Through learning the different linguistic forms and the sociolinguistic factors, EST learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge of certain speech acts as well as their pragmatic receptive ability i.e. the ability to understand the speech act when they encounter it in a target situation discourse will be increased in this stage.

3.3.1.3 Implicit teaching

The third stage concerns the raising of learners' pragmatic production and metapragmatic awareness, i.e. their ability to analyze language use (Thomas, 1983). It aims at training learners to exploit their learned pragmatic knowledge in analyzing input and producing the appropriate utterance (Schmidt, 1993; Judd, 1999). In fact, this stage is achieved implicitly. That is, learners are not aware that the teacher is trying to construct their metapragmatic awareness and pragmatic productive abilities through these activities (Schmidt, 1993). So, learners are provided with tasks whereby they are asked to draw upon their cognitive awareness and their comprehension of the discourse community use of sociolinguistic factors to generate an appropriate form of a speech act (Judd, 1999). In other words, for learners to be able to act out an appropriate speech act, they need to make use of what they learn about the linguistic forms of a particular speech act and the sociolinguistic features in order to analyze the situation and understand the speakers' intention (ibid.).

Judd (1999) maintains that many textbooks neglect the stage of integrating the speech act studied in the other activities of language use. At this stage, learners' attention is drawn to how the speech act under study is used with other acts and how it is related to other conversational features such as turn taking, interrupting, etc. (Bialystok, 1993). For instance, learners who have learnt the act of 'giving an example' will be asked to act out this speech act with the other ones such as agreeing, disagreeing, comparing, etc. and to understand its relations to the conversational feature of creating more subjects of discussion in conversation, i.e. the feature of opening conversation (ibid.).

By devising different tasks, the teacher implicitly builds EST learners' productive abilities and their metapragmatic awareness that enable them to analyze different situations and to choose when to observe the discourse community pragmatic norms in terms of sociolinguistic perception

and when to keep their own (Judd, 1999). Also, the teacher should raise his/her EST learners'
awareness as to the flexibility of using the act under study with other aspects of language use *via*
task-based teaching (Schmidt, 1993).

All in all, following these stages in teaching, EST learners' pragmatic competence and
metapragmatic awareness is likely to develop to the extent that they can perform speech acts
appropriately in writing an abstract and get successful access to their discourse community.

Stage 1 →	Specification of the content	Choose the act to be taught
		Match the speech act findings with the learning situation features
Stage 2 →	Explicit teaching	Teach explicitly the linguistic forms & sociolinguistic factors of the SA in isolation
		Provide the studied SA in target context & promote the pragmatic receptive ability
Stage 3 →	Implicit teaching/ task-based teaching	Develop the metapragmatic awareness and pragmatic production ability by devising different tasks
		Integrate the SA studied with other SAs and conversational features

Figure 3. Model of consciousness-raising approach to teaching speech act. (adapted from
Schmidt's (1993) and Judd's (1999)).

3.3.2 Task-based teaching

Having sketched out the teaching methodology of pragmatic aspects, now it is time to supply some tasks that reinforce learning. As was previously explained, the teaching in the third stage is mainly based on devising tasks which aim basically to promote learners' ability to analyze and comprehend situational features and to provide an appropriate form. Here, one can suggest some of these tasks. They are classified into two categories, tasks that aid in developing learners' pragmatic production and those that develop comprehension. The start will be with tasks that have a relation with receptive abilities, supporting Allen and Widdowson's claim (1979) that classroom activities should be gradually progressed from receptive to productive abilities. But it should be reminded that the focus of the present work is on developing EST learners' pragmatic production in writing of a research articles abstract.

3.3.2.1 Tasks to promote EST learners' pragmatic comprehension

The following tasks can be used to develop EST learners' comprehension of the pragmatic norms of their discourse community:

1/ Model dialogue

With this activity, learners can notice the speech act in use (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991). The focus, here, is on how speech acts are used in discourse. The teacher presents a dialogue, or in the present case, an abstract to the learners which should be 'short and natural' and then asks them to deduce the speech act performed and the different sociolinguistic factors involved, drawing upon their understanding and analysis of the written piece (ibid). In a similar task, the teacher can require learners to guess or choose the possible situation where a given dialogue may happen (Blundell et al., 1982). In the case of an abstract, learners are asked to put a given extract in its appropriate order in the abstract structure on the basis of their rhetorical knowledge and their

grasping of functions performed in an extract such as describing results. Another form of this activity may be to question the learners' understanding by giving them a reordered dialogue or abstract that contains acts to be studied and to ask them to order it (Edwards & Cizer, 2004).

2/ The evaluation of situation

The evaluation of situation is a very helpful task in raising the learners' perception of speech acts (Cohen, 1996). Learners are given a situation and are asked to judge whether the form used is appropriate or not (ibid.). Relying on the consideration of the sociolinguistic factors of the given situation such as the academic status of the recipient, the purpose of writing the abstract, social distance between the interlocutors, relative power, etc., learners can infer whether the form used matches with these factors or not. Learners, here, need to make use of their pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence to provide the right answer (ibid.). As a follow-up, learners can be required to suggest an alternative form to the given situation, i.e. to develop their pragmatic production (Blundell et al., 1982).

3/ Comparing two situations

In this task, two different situations are given together with a dialogue or an abstract with each, and then learners are requested to explain why the speakers or writers from the same discourse community utilize different forms to act out the same speech act (Judd, 1999). It is clear that to detect the differences between the two situations, learners have to employ what they know about sociolinguistic factors (ibid.). Another version of the same task is to provide two situations from different discourse communities and ask learners to compare the use of the same speech act by two communities and the different ways of assessing factors.

4/ Discourse rating task

It is also called 'acceptability rating' (Cohen, 1996). It refers to the task where learners are asked to give rates to given forms (e.g. from the most appropriate to the possible form) (ibid.). This improves learners' comprehension by teaching them the way to relate forms to their appropriate sociolinguistic features and to analyze forms in terms of these features (Baleghizadeh, 2007). This task is, in fact, used also to assess learners' pragmatic competence, notably in the 'diagnostic assessment phase' where teachers use this task to evaluate their learners' level in order to set their teaching goals (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991).

5/ Different Tasks

There are other tasks that can improve learners' ability to analyze and understand pragmatic principles. One of these tasks is to give learners an inappropriate form of a certain speech act in a context with different choices and ask them to choose the appropriate form according to their grasp of the given context (Blundell et al., 1982). Another task is to give learners an abstract together with isolated utterances and ask them to pick up from it expressions that perform the same acts as the utterances provided. Or in a more limited case, the teacher can highlight some acts in the abstract and ask learners to analyze the utterances provided by putting a tick (✔) in the box if the act is the same or a cross (×) if it is not. Later on, a discussion can be held about the shared features or markers between two forms of the same act. For the act of describing, for instance, the teacher can select some descriptive utterances from an abstract and test learners' comprehension by asking them to decide if the utterance is describing the purpose, the method used or the result of the study (adapted from Allen & Widdowson, 1979; Peccei, 1999).

3.3.2.2 Tasks to promote learners' pragmatic production

The following tasks are used to develop EST learners' pragmatic production

1/ Role play activity

In the role-play activity, EST learners are given opportunities to use the speech act under study by supplying them with information about the situation and their roles (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991). Then, learners have to perform the roles after discussing the appropriate form of the speech act in the given situation ((ibid.). In the case of writing an abstract, learners can play the roles of, say, the writer and his assumed reader to discuss how a writer makes use of some clues and shared knowledge to help the reader in the interpretation process and how the reader receives and translates these clues. In fact, there are many situations that can be performed to present for learners their discourse community norms of language use such as a situation where a journal reviewer is having a discussion with an abstract writer, or a discussion between an experienced writer and a novice one, or among writers from different scientific discourse communities. Acting out different roles in various situations makes learners more familiar with the natural use of a speech act and their discourse community norms (Judd, 1999).

2/ Contrastive role-play activity

It is a type of role-play where learners are required to play a set of roles with different sociolinguistic factors each time (ibid). This activity draws learners' attention to the effect of sociolinguistic features such as status, social distance on their production of linguistic forms (ibid.). A case in a point is when a teacher assigns for a learner the role of rewriting a part of an abstract to two journals with different sociolinguistic features or to play a role of a reviewer in two different journals.

3/ What are they saying?

It is an activity that has been introduced by Edwards and Cizer (2004). It aims to raise the learners' consideration of the sociolinguistic features in their construction of speech act (Edwards & Cizer, 2004). This task begins by providing learners' with a situation and distributing the roles randomly (ibid.). That is, the teacher attaches for every participant in the play a paper in his/her back which contains his/her role (ibid.). Then, the learner has to guess his/her role from the way other participants talk to him/her. Based on his/her inference, the learners can act out the speech act appropriately in the play (ibid.). Here, it is not necessary to set a situation that has a relation with abstract writing but any situation that contains the speech act will work since the goal of this activity is to build the learners' flexibility in performing the acts.

4/ Feedback and discussion

It is the space where learners are given opportunity to talk about their attitudes on the similarities and differences between their MT pragmatic norms and the TL ones (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991). Providing feedback and discussing pragmatic aspects with other learners, mainly the sociolinguistic assessment of factors, enriches the learners' sociopragmatic competence (the TL appropriate use) and raises their awareness as to the possible areas of positive and negative transfer or misunderstanding (Li, 2011).

5/ Discourse completion task (DCT)

It is one of the most commonly used tools in pragmatic research (Cohen, 1996). Learners are asked to complete a discourse of a given situation with the appropriate form of speech act taking into account the available sociolinguistic features (ibid.). This task challenges the learners' ability to analyze and generate the appropriate form of a speech act (ibid.). It is worth noting that this task can also be used to enhance learners' comprehension of the role of contextual clues in

using the suitable form (ibid.). The teacher can create other versions of this task. S/He can provide learners with a diagram or a table that shows, for instance, the results of an experiment and asks them to complete an abstract from this diagram or the opposite.

6/ Different tasks

In addition to the above tasks, other activities can aid teachers to raise their learners' pragmatic production and metapragmatic awareness. First, a task can start with the provision of a related group of words like a 'cause and its effect' or comparison with additional materials in a box such as adjectives. The question is to join this group of words using the given materials to form an appropriate act. The goal behind this task is to direct learners' attention to the place and importance of some markers in performing the act under study as is the case with the place of adjectives in the act of comparing. In a second task learners can be asked to rewrite a given utterance twice with different forms. Teachers can enlarge this task by asking learners to rewrite an abstract that s/he supplies through replacing its method, purpose and result with the new ones and making any formal change. These tasks work for promoting learners' ability to vary their forms in performing an act. A third task can be devised to train learners on how to use different acts together in one speech event. It requires from them to fuse two complementary abstracts in one, paying attention to the acts performed and their sociolinguistic factors. Learners are provided with a set of expressions that can help them. (Adapted from, Allen & Widdowson, 1979; Blundell et al., 1982).

It is clear that the choice and content of tasks vary according to the act to be studied, the discourse community norms, the learners' level and needs, etc. That is, teachers have to adapt these tasks to their learning situations. Tasks may vary in contents and levels but their ultimate goal is the raising of learners' pragmatic competence and metapragmatic awareness. Here, it is

crucial to point out that all these tasks are be applicable to EST learners with a focus on scientific content only.

3.4 Assessing EST learners' pragmatic competence

One of the main constraints that teachers encounter in teaching pragmatics is the lack of clear assessment methods (Rover, 2009; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). Put another way, there are no clear-cut followed methods employed in assessing pragmatics similar to those employed in language proficiency tests such as TOEFL (ibid.). The problem in the area of assessing pragmatics lies, indeed, in the unclear answer to why and how pragmatic competence is assessed and also to the nature of pragmatics (ibid.). On these premises, Cohen (2004) notes that the first step to start with in assessing pragmatic knowledge is to identify the purpose of assessment. In a sense, the teacher has to set clearly the purpose for which s/he intends to assess learners' pragmatic competence (ibid.). He (ibid.) states that "we could start by asking, what is our purpose for assessing speech acts?"(p.4).

As an answer to this question, the teacher can either test the learners' pragmatic comprehension, production, or analytic abilities (Cohen, 2010). The decision about which one of these abilities to test relies heavily on the focus of the teaching process (ibid.). In other words, the focus of the teaching phase must be the emphasis on the purpose of assessment (ibid.). For example, if understanding the different linguistic forms of a certain speech act is the focus of the course (i.e. pragmalinguistic knowledge), then the goal of assessment must be on testing learners' comprehension of the linguistic forms used to perform the speech act under study in different contexts and of the pragmatic norms of this linguistic choice (ibid.). In another course, the teacher can work on the learners' appropriate production of these forms. This implies that the production of sociopragmatic knowledge will be the main purpose of assessment (ibid.). It is worth stressing the point that pragmatic teaching can focus either on one of these areas:

comprehension, production or analytic abilities of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge or on more than one (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). Yet, it is clear that pragmatic assessment should evaluate learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic types of knowledge as they are integrated in language use. In fact, it is difficult to distinguish between them while assessing (ibid.).

Choosing the suitable tool of assessment entails knowing the purpose of the process (Hudson, 2001; Cohen, 2010). The purpose and the manner of assessing pragmatic competence should be closely related (ibid.). Brown (2001); Liu (2006) and Cohen (2010) set forward a list of six tools to assess pragmatic competence.

1/ Written discourse completion task (WDCT)

It is a written test which gives learners a description of a situation followed by an incomplete dialogue where they are asked to write the appropriate form of the speech act to be tested (Brown, 2001). WDCT has two forms (ibid.). It either requires learners to provide a 'rejoinder' or a reply appropriate to the given utterance in a situation, or it may involve only a 'specification of a situation' (Liu, 2006). In the first case, learners ought to consider the situation and the available utterance and are asked to infer the appropriate form (such as providing a 'refusal' based on a given 'request'). While in the second case, they need to refer only to the situation in supplying the appropriate answer (ibid.). In this task, the aim of assessment is mainly to test learners' production but indirectly it examines also the learners' comprehension of sociolinguistic factors of a situation that determine the appropriate choice. Further, learners have to call for both their pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence.

2/ A multiple-choice discourse completion task (MDCT)

It is an assignment where there is a written description of a situation together with several responses (Brown, 2001). Learners are required to select the appropriate form from the given options (ibid.). This task is intended to see if the learners can analyze the situation and can choose correctly on the basis of their understanding of contextual clues. That is, it tests the learners' metapragmatic ability. Also, the task involves the use of both learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge.

3/ Oral discourse completion task (ODCT)

In the ODCT, learners listen to a situation and are asked to supply the appropriate answer orally (Brown, 2001). Similar to the written discourse completion task, learners' production and indirectly their comprehension of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge is tested through the ODCT.

4/ A discourse role-play task (DRPT)

It is a test that presents a situation to learners who have to act out the given roles (Brown, 2001). Changing the roles each time among learners together with the social factors attendant upon these roles can help the teacher to assess not only the learners' ability to generate the speech act under study but also their ability to analyze and translate different social factors into appropriate linguistic choices.

5/ A discourse self-assessment task (DSAT)

It refers to an assignment where a written situation with several forms of an act is offered and the learners are asked to rate these forms (Brown, 2001). In fact, to successfully rate forms,

learners' comprehension and analytic abilities of pragmaliguistic and sociopragmatic competence are required.

6/ A role-play self-assessment task (RPSAT)

It is a combination of the discourse role-play task (DRPT) and discourse self-assessment task (DSAT) (Brown, 2001). RPSAT is a test that asks learners to act out a role and rate each other's performance in a given situation (ibid.). An important role is assigned to the teacher in this task. It is that of monitoring learners' performance and providing them with a checklist that defines the evaluative criteria (Ishihara, 2010). RPSAT is a complete task as it examines learners' comprehension, production and analytic abilities.

A glance at these tools confirms the point that to choose an adequate tool for assessing learners, the teacher should specify his/her purpose (Hudson, 2001). Therefore, the choice of a tool depends on teachers who need to select and adjust the task that suits their pedagogical context (Ishihara, 2010). Researchers (Brown, 2001; Hudson, 2001; and Cohen, 2004) point out that the useful way to test the learners' pragmatic competence is to make use of more than one tool of assessment as each tool measures a particular learners' ability. A test which contains a written discourse completion task (WDCT) and discourse self-assessment task (DSAT) can supply more valid data about learners' abilities because WDCT assesses the learners' production of pragmalinguistic knowledge (ability to utilize different and correct forms of speech acts) (Hudson, 2001). The DSAT, in its part, judges the learners' appropriate understanding and analyzing of sociolinguistic factors, i.e. the comprehension and metapragmatic ability of sociopragmatic knowledge (ibid.). As an evidence, Cohen (2004) maintains that "for greater validity, it is probably best to use multiple measures in order to approximate the respondents' genuine abilities…" (p.4).

Conclusion

Pragmatic failure was the first point dealt with in this chapter. The chapter discusses EST learners' inability to understand and produce language appropriately, i.e. pragmatic failure (Thomas, 1983; Flowerdew, 2013). After that the two types of pragmatic failure (pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failure) and the causes of this failure were tackled. The main cause of pragmatic failure, that is, the lack of explicit teaching was the next point. After accounting for the main principles underlying explicit and implicit types of teaching, the spotlight was put mainly on how L1 pragmatics is acquired and how L2 pragmatics is taught as well as on the teaching methodology that can be adopted to develop EST learners' pragmatic competence in writing a research abstract. The chapter also presented a collection of tasks that can help teachers in achieving the stages of the teaching process. The focus of the final point was on assessing pragmatic competence.

Failing to perform different speech acts appropriately according to the discourse community norms is a serious difficulty that faces EST learners' in writing research articles (Clenell, 1999; Flowerdew, 2013). More clearly, pragmatic failure is a serious problem in the EST learners' discourse community (ibid.). It is of two types, pragmalinguistic failure, which refers to the learners' inability to assign the correct form or intention to a given utterance, and sociopragmatic failure which refers to the learners' miscalculation of L2 social perception (Thomas, 1983). It is true that teachers can observe the two types of failure but what is more important is to know how to deal with them (ibid.). Pragmalinguistic failure must be corrected by the teacher whereas sociopragmatic failure has to be the subject of discussion between the teacher and learners (ibid.).

Another issue that requires teachers' attention is the investigation of the causes that may lead to this failure. Research reveals that there are many causes behind this. Some are related to

pragmatic studies, or to teaching curricula, or to pre-service and in-service programs and so on (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991; Kasper & Blum-kulka, 1993; Kasper, 1997 and others). One can argue that all these causes stem from a lack of explicit teaching. As a matter of fact, explicit teaching seems a simple action while its analysis exposes a complete process (Ellis, 2009). It is the process of being directly involved in the process of learning with learners' awareness being raised as to ways language is used appropriately in different contexts (ibid.). Explicit teaching, then, involves the specification and the instruction of the content of course with learners' awareness.

Many pragmatic studies highlight explicit teaching of pragmatic aspects can develop learners' pragmatic competence (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991, Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; Kasper, 1997; Judd, 1999; Rose, 1999 and others). According to them, to overcome the different causes that may lead to learners' pragmatic failure and to enhance their pragmatic awareness, teachers have to teach pragmatic aspects explicitly. Pedagogical experiences show that *via* explicit teaching learners can build their pragmatic resources but yet lack fluency in exploiting these resources (Schmidt, 1993; Rose, 1999). Learners may know the different forms of a speech act and the sociolinguistic factors but they cannot recall this knowledge smoothly when using language. As a compromise, Schmidt (1993); Bialystok (1993), Judd (1999) and Rose (1999) call for a consciousness-raising approach to teaching pragmatics which combines explicit and implicit teaching. Explicit teaching is assigned the role of consciously drawing learners' attention to how to assign sociolinguistic factors to an appropriate linguistic choice of a speech act (Judd, 1999). Implicit teaching, in its turn, makes use of tasks to direct learners' attention to when and how to use the speech act with other acts and conversational features (Bialystok, 1993).

Based on these assumptions, a methodology of teaching speech acts is suggested. It consists of three main stages, starting from the specification of the content according to pragmatic studies, the analysis of learners' needs and the definition of the teaching context (Judd, 1999; Ellis, 2009). Then, EST learners are taught explicitly general pragmatic principles (Schmidt,

1993; Judd, 1999). Next, *ad hoc* tasks are devised for the sake of training EST learners to notice, analyze, understand, and generate speech acts (ibid.).

Granting that learners' see their pragmatic competence being developed, the issue that arises, then, is how to reliably assess their pragmatic abilities. These abilities can be tested by using different tools which should be selected on the basis of the purpose of assessment and the focus of the teaching process (Hudson, 2001; Brown, 2001; Cohen, 2004). A consciousness-raising approach to teaching is likely to ensure for EST learners a rich and flexible pragmatic competence that will help them to produce pragmatically appropriate pieces of writing in their area of specialism and be assessed likewise.

Chapter Four: Applications

Introduction

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Chapter Four: Applications

Introduction

Throughout the preceding chapters, a basic theoretical background has been constructed about the importance of pragmatic aspects in EST Writing and the need to teach these aspects to enable learners in this field to write effectively. The essential assumption is that pragmatic awareness is a crucial skill in EST learners' writing which can be developed through a consciousness-raising approach to teaching. This refers to a combination of explicit and implicit types of teaching. That is, teaching speech acts explicitly and implicitly can enhance EST learners' ability to describe, compare, define, etc. appropriately in writing research abstracts. Explicit teaching works on enriching the EST learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge of performing different acts, while implicit teaching aims at endowing them with the metapragmatic awareness of the scientific discourse community use *via* devising different tasks. As far as the assessment process is concerned, teachers should choose various tasks that test learners' comprehensive, productive and analytic abilities.

The present chapter attempts to examine the effectiveness of consciousness-raising approach in teaching ways of performing some speech acts that are needed in writing a research article abstract. The chapter outlines the components of the study including a description of participants (subjects) and instrument, teaching methodology, assessment procedures, and finally results and discussion.

4.1 Subjects and instruments

Participants in the study are thirty-four (34) 3rd year students of agriculture at the University Kasdi Merbah Ouargla. There are thirty (30) females and four (4) males from two main sub specialities, saharian agriculture and agricultural space management. Their ages range

from 21 to 25 years old. Agriculture is a discipline that can be classified under English for Science and Technology (EST) (Johns, 1991; Dudely-Evan and St. John, 1998). So, subjects in the study are members of the EST discourse community. More precisely, the sample is of English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) as they make up a group of the same discipline and have the same educational purposes (ibid.). Concerning the level, participants can be considered as intermediate, i.e., they understand basic concepts, reference, cohesion, etc. Also, they have receptive, productive vocabulary and basic grammatical rules.

Participants have studied English for nearly the same period. Most of them report that they studied English for 7 years or a little more. That is, they possess at least initial skills in comprehension, grammar, writing and so on.

The sample of 34 students represents thirty three percent (33%) of the population (103) of 3rd year agriculture students. It is an incidental sample as the subjects are the available members at hand from the whole population. Before starting the course, the participants were informed of the content of what is to be taught but not about the study in order not to affect the results. In other words, they were aware that they are learning how to perform some functions which can help them in writing an abstract. In fact, this explanation about content motivated students as they reported that they needed to learn more practical things and to find interpretation to what they have previously studied such as the practical meaning of the rule about how to form adjectives (using adjectives in the act of describing). The subjects were taught for two semesters. The first semester was just to activate their dormant competence, while the second semester was devoted to the implementation of the study (formal instruction).

As to the instruments, the study employed a questionnaire and tests to obtain data. The questionnaire is mainly designed to determine students' need in terms of acts and to specify the content of lessons. The test is used twice as a pre-test to record the students available pragmatic

knowledge and level before the teaching sessions and as a post-test to examine the degree to which students have developed their pragmatic competence. It is important to mention that during the two semesters, students' performance was observed for the sake of adjusting or clarifying the content if necessary.

4.2 Teaching methodology

As mentioned before, the proposed methodology consists of three stages. Their main goal is to promote the agriculture students' productive, comprehensive and analytic abilities of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge. The treatment delivered over approximately seven sessions of one hour and a half each. In fact, there is no real division between the three stages, as they complete each other. It is only for explanatory convenience that the three stages are presented separately. So, the study has been conducted following the following stages.

4.2.1 Specification of the content

In deciding what should be taught to this particular population of students, their needs, norms of the scientific discourse community they belong to, and the speech act findings have to be taken into consideration. That is, three areas have been consulted. The starting point was the scientific discourse community norms. According to Zimmerman (1989), scientific discourse consists basically of twelve (12) functions namely 'classifying, comparing, cause and effect relationship, hypothesizing, defining, exemplifying, giving evidence, experimenting, calculating, reporting, describing and predicting'. Based on her (ibid.) categorization and in an attempt to search for the acts performed in the abstract writing, we examined 30 scientific articles from a number of EST disciplines. These articles were selected from different scientific magazines and journals published between 2012 and 2014. The criterion that was applied to identify the functions is the one presented in Zimmerman's work (see Appendix A). For example, the act of 'classifying' can be achieved by the use of verbs such as classify, made of, composed of,

categorize, include, etc. As a result, functions were classified depending on their frequency of occurrence in the abstract.

Functions	Frequency	Percentage°/°
1. Describing	83	32.29
2. Classifying	37	14.39
3. Reporting	35	13.61
4. Cause and effect	32	12.45
5. Comparing	20	7.78
6. Calculating	13	5.05
7. Hypothesizing	09	3.50
8. Exemplifying	08	3.11
9. Defining	07	2.72
10. Giving reasons	04	1.55
11. Predicting	04	1.55
12. Experimenting	01	0.38

Table 2. The frequency of functions occurrence in abstracts of research articles in agriculture.

The obtained results show that acts vary in the rate of their occurrence in abstracts. The most frequently performed acts are 'describing, classifying, reporting, cause and effect relationship and comparing'. Practically, in writing abstract, scientific discourse community makes use of some acts rather than others to encode a certain message. Describing, for example, registers high occurrence as writers need to describe their purpose, the previous studies, and methods used. The same can be said of 'classifying' which is employed in explaining the methods used in the study as in *"the mixture that was used in our analysis consists of…supplied*

with different dosage to each sample". By presenting their results and explaining some reasons that led to it, writers have chosen the acts of 'reporting' and 'cause and effect relationship'. Similarly, the act of 'comparing' has been noticed mainly in summarizing findings such as *"salinity of ground water proved to be less important to rooting of the date palm compared to the level of the ground water"*. It is logical also that the details of an experiment, (i.e. the act of experimenting) cannot be provided in the abstract. Overall, the scientific discourse community employs mainly five acts which suit the rhetorical structure of an abstract in scientific article, i.e. their norms.

The second area to consider in preparing the content is the students' needs. That is, what students need to know about English for agricultural purposes, especially in terms of acts. In order to determine these needs, a need analysis (NA) questionnaire has been distributed (see Appendix B). It consists of fifteen (15) questions. The questions enquire either about students' needs or about the previous and preferred learning situation. A detailed analysis and interpretation of NA questionnaire is required.

The first question (01) aims to know the students' view about the importance of English in their speciality. Table 3 shows the result of students' responses.

The importance of English in agriculture	Number	%
yes	33	97.05
no	01	3.03

Table 3. Students' responses about importance of English in agriculture

It is clear from the analysis of Table 3 above that most EST students (33 out of 34) see the importance of English in their agricultural studies. Their response means that EST students face occasions where they really feel the need for English language in their speciality.

The next five questions are intended to describe the agriculture students' previous situation (Section1). The start was with the second question (02) that investigates whether what students study in English till this level reflects their current needs or not. Table 4 below summarizes the students' responses.

The previous studies reflection of students' needs	Number	%
yes	06	18.18
no	28	82.35

Table 4. Students' responses about whether previous studies reflect their needs.

Table 4 indicates that most agriculture students (28 out of 34) agree that what they learnt before in English does not fulfill their current needs. These students are aware of what they need and of the unsuccessful provision of English courses that serve their needs. Another portion (06 out of 34) answered by 'yes', that is, what have been learnt in English was exactly what they lacked to know about it. Many interpretations may stem from their reply. For instance, they may have different needs from those of the other 28 students or their response may be due to the fact that they have different learning background. It can be deduced from this divergence that the English course met some of the agriculture students' current requirements but not most of them.

The third question (03) aims to discover if the problem of English course is in the limited time. Students' answers on Table 5 below confirm this suggestion. Twenty-eight (28) students out of 34 replied by 'no'. That is, one English session per week is not enough to teach them all they need. But six (6) students think that one session is sufficient. This result supports , to some extent, one of the previous interpretations in question two about the possibility of having extra English courses to help these students fill their gaps. So, one of the problems in English course is the limited time allotted.

The sufficiency of English sessions per week	Number	%
yes	06	18.18
No	28	82.35

Table 5. The students' view about the sufficiency of English sessions per week

In question four (04), students are asked about the focus of previous English course in terms of language areas. Table 6 presents students' replies

The focus of previous English course	Number	%
grammar	03	9.09
vocabulary	00	00
both	31	91.17

Table 6. The focus of the previous English course in terms of language areas.

One can deduce from Table 6 that the focus of the previous English course was mainly on teaching grammar rules with some technical terms of the speciality as was reported by 31 students out of 34. Three students (03 out of 34) describe their English course to concentrate only on explaining grammar rules. When students were asked to specify if there are other areas, five (05) students reply that they were sometimes asked to translate sentences or terms from English into French. Whether the focus of the previous course was on both areas or only on grammar, no importance is given to communicative abilities, i.e. of discourse and pragmatic abilities.

Concerning the skills, the fifth question (05) asks about the main skills which were taught previously. Table 7 below indicates that fourteen (14) agriculture students (14 out of 34) were

asked to write sentences or to read a given text. Ten (10) of them added that they were not only asked to write or to read but to speak and to listen to the teachers' reading sometimes. The rest of students (08 out of 34) reply that the course gave them more chance to listen to the teachers and sometimes to speak by answering some questions orally. Varying focuses by English instructors of the same speciality raise the question, since agriculture students have nearly the same needs and uses of language in the target situation, why, then, isn't there any united focus on the needed skills?

The skill focused during the previous English courses	Number	%
Speaking and listening	08	24.24
Writing and reading	15	44.11
Both	10	30.30

Table 7. The focus of the previous English course in terms of skill.

The sixth question (06) addressed to students to know how they were achieving tasks in the previous English sessions. Table 8 shows students' answers.

The technique used in previous English sessions	Number	%
Pair work or individual work	20	58.82
Group work	08	24.24
Whole class	06	18.18

Table 8. The technique used in the previous English sessions

As it is shown on Table 8, most students (20 out of 34) report that they were performing tasks either individually or in pair work. Eight students (8) point out that they work in groups mainly in achieving and presenting a research paper. The remaining ones (06 out of 34) see that

tasks were sometimes performed collectively by writing down on the blackboard. These different techniques show that there is a diversity in English sessions in terms of tasks and in students different backgrounds.

Moving to section two which addresses students 'needs, six questions are meant to specify what students need in terms of acts, skills, language areas, and so on. Question seven (07) aims to investigate students' purpose in learning English. Table 9 sums up students' responses.

Students' needs	Number	%
To write correct sentences	00	00
To learn how to communicate	15	45.45
Both	19	57.57

Table 9. Agriculture students' needs.

From the results on Table 9, students were divided into two groups, nineteen (19) of them state that they are in need to learn not only how to write correct sentences (i.e. accuracy) but also how to exploit these sentences in real interaction. The second group (15 out of 34) choose to learn how to communicate and their main goal is to communicate successfully. In fact, the results imply that both groups agree on the need to develop their communicative skills so as to get safe access to their discourse community.

Question eight (08) was about the skills needed to achieve students' goal. In other words, it is about students' needs in terms of productive and reception skills. The majority of students (20 out of 34) argue that they need to learn how to speak and write because in learning productive skills they are also having a chance to deal with receptive ones (see Table 10 below). Fourteen students out of thirty four see that receptive skills, mainly listening, are the most

needed at the present time, as they are always asked to read texts or listen to their teacher. Following Allen and Widowson's claim (1979) that the activities should start from receptive skill moving to productive one, and since the previous English course focused more on receptive skills, the students need to focus more on productive skills.

Needed skill	Number	%
Receptive skill (listening & reading)	14	42.42
Productive skill (speaking & writing)	20	58.82

Table 10. Agriculture students' needs in terms of skills.

Question nine (09) is intended to know the main language areas that students lack information about. Table 11 below presents the students' answers.

Needed areas	Number	%
Form	08	24.24
Function	24	70.58
Both	02	6.06

Table 11. Agriculture students' needs in terms of language areas.

It can be noticed from Table 11 that twenty four students (24) out of thirty four (34), that is, most of them, select the area of function as the most needed in their speciality; while eight students (08) prefer to know more about forms, new terms and so on. The rest of students (02) reply that both areas are important to them. Note that the two areas have been well explained to students and the input about functions is what students think they lack.

Since the study focus is on productive skills, precisely writing, question ten (10) is asked to know the rate of writing in English for agriculture students. As it is shown on Table 12 below, twenty two (22) students out of thirty four (34) state that they need sometimes to write in English; while twelve students (12) maintain that their speciality requires very often the skill of writing in English. None of the students opt for the item 'rarely'. This can explain the importance of writing in agriculture. As an illustration, a student reported that even in preparing a poster in French, he is asked to write its summary in English, i.e., he needs to learn how to write correctly and appropriately.

Rate of writing	Number	%
Very often	12	36.36
sometimes	22	64.70
Rarely	00	00

Table 12. The rate of writing in English for agriculture students.

Regarding the context where they practise writing, most students (19 out of 34) answered question eleven (11) by stating that both web and classroom involve writing in English. The rest of students, i.e. fifteen (15) claim that they need to write in English only in the summary of their research. Academically, research is the context where most students are required to write in English. But students sometimes write to foreign teachers or get engaged in a debate with foreign agriculture students. For this, not only will they function in a formal situation but also in an informal one. Table 13 below shows the result.

Context of writing	Number	%
Web	00	00
In class	15	45.45
Both	19	57.57

Table 13. The context where students of agriculture practise writing.

The last question (14) on students' needs is intended to examine the acts that are most needed (among the extracted) in the abstract of agriculture articles. Table 14 illustrates students' choice.

Acts	Number	%
Describing	20	30.30
Comparing	19	28.78
Cause and effect	14	21.21
Reporting	8	12.12
Classifying	5	7.57
Calculating	0	0

Table 14. The most needed acts.

It is clear that acts vary in their percentage. Due to time constrains and for the sake of covering aspects of the acts under study, every student is asked to choose only two functions. 'Describing' and 'comparing' are the acts to be studied. The students' choice seems to be a little similar to the result of analyzing agriculture acts, especially in selecting 'describing' as the most needed act. Students know to a certain extent what the interaction in their discourse community requires.

The last section is concerned with the preferred learning situation. It contains three questions. Question thirteen (13) is meant to enquire into students' preferred technique. Results on Table 15 below show that few students (06 out of 34) prefer to perform tasks individually before the whole class correction. Most of students (15 out of 34) prefer to work in groups, while thirteen (13 out of 34) support pair work. In every case, the correction of the task is achieved with the participation of the whole class. In comparison to the technique adopted in the previous course (see Table 8 above), students' preferred technique .i.e. group work was neglected. So, tasks are done in both group and pair works.

Learning technique	Number	%
Individual then whole class work	06	18.18
Pair then whole class work	13	39.39
Group then whole class work	15	44.11

Table 15. Preferred learning technique by agriculture students.

Question fourteen (14) seeks to enquire about the students' learning style. Table sixteen (16) presents students' responses.

Learning style	Number	%
Auditory style	9	27.27
Visual style	2	6.06
Kinesthetic style	23	67.64

Table 16. Students' preferred learning style.

Considerable differences are noticed in students' responses. The majority of students, *viz*, twenty three (23 out of 34) can better grasp a subject with the aid of three skills, to see, to listen

and to write the item under study. More clearly, they can better concentrate if their teacher explains the item orally and writes it on the blackboard to give them chance to take notes. The rest of students were of two groups. Nine of them (09 out of 34) prefer to listen and mentally record an item, while two students prefer to see only a written item to concentrate on. In the present situation, the style of the majority will be taken into account without neglecting that of the minority.

The last question (17) is intended to test students' preparedness and motivation to learn more about acts performance. As it is noted on Table seventeen (17) below, all students are highly motivated to learn more about how different acts are performed in writing an effective abstract. This motivation will, no doubt, have a positive effect on the presentation of the course within a reasonable time.

Students' motivation	Number	%
yes	34	100
no	00	00

Table 17. Students' motivation to learn about act performance

Drawing on results from the needs-analysis questionnaire, many concluding ideas related to content specification stage are drawn. Students of agriculture are interested in learning English and mainly how to perform acts when writing. The course is concerned mainly with the performance of two acts, 'describing and comparing' in writing abstract in formal and informal contexts. Taking into account students' preferred learning style, the content will be explicitly explained, using different channels, spoken and written. Concerning the tasks, they are designed in group work then whole class correction with the teacher monitoring the process. Pair work

will also be exploited in doing some of the activities. Here, it is to be mentioned that these results contribute to designing the pre-test.

The last point is the pragmatic research findings about the way of accomplishing the two acts of 'describing' and 'comparing' in scientific research articles. Based on Toulamin & Baier (1952), Blundell et al. (1982) and Zimmerman's (1989) studies, the devices that are employed by scientific discourse community to 'describe' and to 'compare' in formal and informal situations are collected from handouts (see Appendix C). Further, building on Hudson (2001), Brown (2001) and Ishihara and Cohen (2010) who account for some sociolinguistic factors, three sociolinguistic factors have been chosen, status, relative power and social distance (see Figure 4, p.106). The main factor is the academic status. It is well known in scientific domains that the person's high academic status and contribution can build in him/her a degree of confidence in this domain. That is, s/he can introduce new assumptions by using certain new devices with high degrees unlike a novice member of the discourse community who has to rely on the others' view and to use more tentative devices.

For the relative power, it is the degree to which a speaker has the right to order the listener to do something (Hudson, 2001). Sometimes it is the speaker's high academic status that gives him/her the right to impose some behaviours on the addressee. Or it can be the professional status in an educational institution, such as when the department gives a certain right to an addresser (a Head of Department) to impose a certain mode of action on a certain addressee (department staff). Thus, a relative power factor has a relation with the status of the speaker. The social distance factor refers to the degree of familiarity between interlocutors (ibid). As an illustration, the expression 'there is no way' which is used to introduce a comparison in informal situation, can be used with an interlocutor that has a low status and power in comparison to the speaker and a near social distance between the two (Blundell et al., 1982). Agriculture students have to be explicitly taught these aspects about the speech acts under study.

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Academic/professional status: lower ←——————→ higher

Relative power: Low ←—————→high

Social distance: close ←—————→ distant

These sociolinguistic factors are used in the context of agriculture to evaluate whether to employ formal or informal language. The more the mark X is to the left, the lesser formal the language is expected to be.
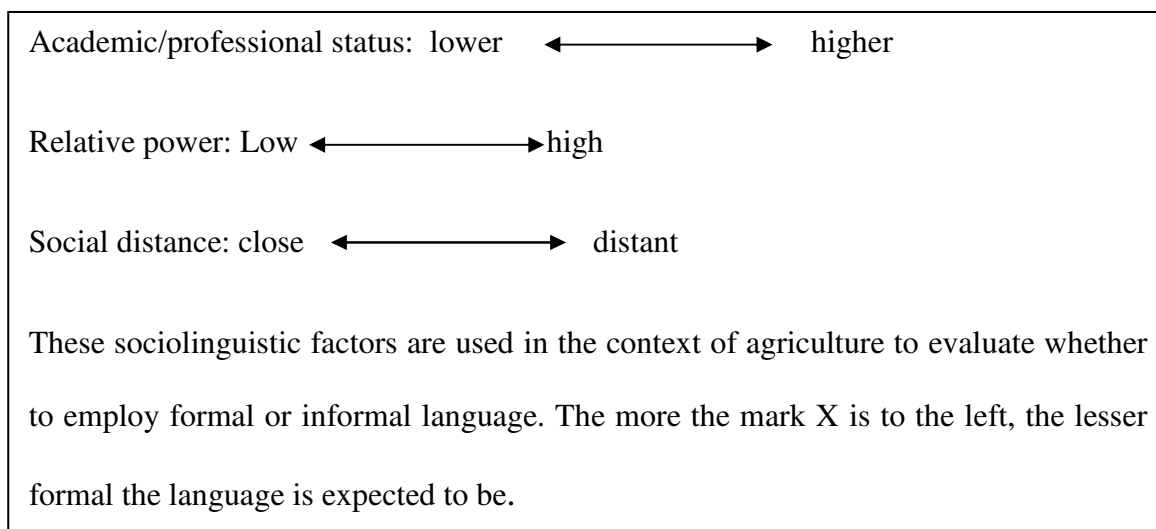
Figure 04. The sociolinguistic factors used in the context of agriculture (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010)

4.2.2. Explicit teaching

It is high time to present the prepared lessons for agriculture students. As indicted before, students at this stage to know the goal of this course, i.e., learning about ways to perform the act of 'describing' and 'comparing' in order to help them writing scientific abstract. The explanation has been divided into two parts. In the first part, general norms forming the acts under study were presented. Here, agriculture students have been taught what any student who wants to study these two acts should know. In the case of 'comparing', for example, they learn that any comparison between two items requires an adjective of comparison with 'more, less or suffixes', depending on the type of the adjective (see Appendix C). What has been noticed is that students repeated saying "yes, we have seen all these rules before in secondary school". But what they do not realize is the ways the agriculture discourse community makes use of these devices. This is the concern of the second step.

The lesson in its second part aims to answer the students' enquiry about the ways these learned norms can be beneficial in agriculture (English for Agricultural Purposes). It presents special devices and utterances that are used to 'describe' and 'compare' in scientific discourse.

For instance, the use of the utterance "*there is no comparison*" to introduce the act of 'comparing' as well as the employment of superlative case and adjectives ending with 'ing' are some pragmatic norms of scientific discourse. To improve the students' productive skill of writing an effective scientific abstract, the course focuses also on the rhetorical structure of an abstract and the most frequently used expressions (see Appendix D). An attempt has been made to clarify the link between the rhetorical structure of an abstract and the acts to be studied. For instance, in presenting the purpose, method, and result of the study, a writer needs to perform the act of 'describing' most of the time. In the case of 'comparing', s/he is required to 'compare' the obtained result with findings, to relate his/her study with the previous ones and so on. The main goal in this stage is to present the importance of these two acts in the field of agriculture writing abstracts.

4.2.3. Implicit teaching

The third stage deals with the aim of providing students with tasks that support their cognitive awareness. These were presented during the second half of every session to enable students to work more on their comprehensive, productive and analytic skills. To ensure students' comprehensive ability, different activities were selected. In the case of 'comparing', students were asked to analyze and evaluate a situation, to explain why different forms were used, and to account for the reason why all the provided situations were formal (evaluation of situation task). Concerning the act of 'describing', different utterances were given to students in order to analyze and choose the ones that are more descriptive, while in the second task students were required to decide what each utterance describes (see Appendix F). The aim of these tasks is to develop students' metapragmatic ability, that is, their analytic ability, as well as to present more concrete examples on the two acts. Concerning the productive ability, students are either asked to complete a passage from a diagram or to rewrite a given utterance to make it

appropriate to the context (see Appendix F). In an attempt to provide the two acts integrated with others, different samples of abstracts were supplied to students for analysis and discussion.

Although the focus was mainly on 'comparing' and 'describing', the course includes hints to rhetorical structure of scientific abstract, conversational features and other areas. The main stages worked for the specification of the content of the course on the basis of students' needs, learning situation, and scientific discourse community norms. They are also put in a way to introduce explicitly ways of performing the acts of 'describing' and 'comparing' in scientific writing. Finally, they aim to provide students with opportunities to practise the tasks devised at varying degrees of difficulty. The ultimate aim is to raise agriculture students' pragmatic awareness, i.e. their comprehensive, productive and analytic abilities of the pragmalinginstic and sociopragnatic knowledge. In order to clearly present students' results, an assessment procedure is adopted.

4.3. Assessment procedures

In carrying out the study, agriculture students were subject to formative evaluation, i.e. an ongoing mode of assessment. At first, it takes the form of a pre-test that has been achieved before the course for the purpose of determining students' pragmatic background and gaps. The pre-test consists of five exercises (see Appendix E). The first exercise is an analytic one where students were asked to evaluate a situation as a formal or informal on the basis of the available contextual clues in every situation. The terms 'formal' and 'informal' situations were explained to students briefly in order not to bias the result. SA formal situation was defined as a context where one needs to select appropriate language, while an informal situation refers to a context where one uses language without paying much attention to his/her word's choice. Students were required to analyze situations or utterances, searching for clues to classify the entry as formal or informal. For instance, in the second situation of 'describing an experiment to a colleague',

students can infer from the clue 'colleague' that there is an equal status between participants, and thus, an informal language is expected to be used. The remaining entries followed the same format of analysis. Next, the pretest was divided into two parts: one for the act of 'comparing' and the other for the act of 'describing'. Each of these parts comprises two exercises. The first exercise examines the comprehensive ability, while the second tests the productive one.

The first exercise in the 'comparing part' provides a situation where students are asked to choose among the given possibilities the appropriate interpretation. To ensure that students understand the situation and they do not choose by chance, they are requested to underline the devices that help them in inferring the right meaning. The second exercise in 'comparison' intends to examine students' production. It presents data on a table with the required adjectives and asks students to express comparison drawn on the table. In the part devoted to 'describing', the comprehensive exercise supplies a part of an abstract which requires from students a careful reading to grasp the utterances that described the setting, the topic, the purpose and the result. Once this is done, they transfer this information and fill in the given table. For the productive exercise, students are asked to describe a sample of soil that is presented in a picture by exploiting the data provided on the table. Every exercise in the pre-test is assigned four points. A correct answer is based on providing the most appropriate utterance.

An important remark has to be made here. Topics in tests are not different from those chosen in the teaching sessions (date palm and its importance, types of milk, features of soil, types of tomatoes, etc.).

Another form of formative evaluation is that tasks were given to students during the course for the sake of checking if they need more explanation and practise on a certain point (see Appendix F). One of these tasks consists of dividing the class into groups and students are requested to discuss why an utterance is considered as inappropriate to a given situation. Such a

task aims to check students' understanding of the relation between linguistic choice and sociolinguistic factors. In the second question, students are asked to produce the utterance that they see most appropriate. As an illustration, a controller who has to provide his notes to the agriculture office concerning the tomato crops after a visit to a number of fields writes "*globally, bad result has been registered in most of non-treated greenhouses. Also, a great damage was noticed not only in the plants but also in the soil features*". Analyzing the situation in terms of factors, i.e. status, relative power and social distance, students must realize that the controller's utterance is inappropriate to the context. As an alternative, students have to exploit the devices used to describe in more formal situation such as 'a significant losses and obvious damage have been registered'. If students were able to detect the problem and to solve it, this means that they get the point, if not, more practise and clarification are required.

At the end of the course, a summative evaluation in the form of a post-test was administered to students in order to measure what they have learned from the course. The post-test is made up of four exercises divided into two sections. One section was devoted to 'comparing' and another devoted to 'describing'. Students' production and comprehension were tested. Each exercise is marked on five points. Tasks are fairly similar to those presented in the pre-test and the teaching phase (see Appendix G). The first and third exercises are intended to assess students' comprehension of the acts of 'comparing' and 'describing'. These tasks contain two types of activities, an evaluation of situation whereby students have to analyze the given situation or passage and to answer questions on act performed, factors, described part, etc., and multiple choice questions. The remaining exercises aim to examine students' production abilities. They take the form of discourse completion tasks (DCT) either by translating pictures into utterances or by reordering utterances after appropriately rewriting them.

Regarding the scoring features, the grade was distributed between correct form (pragmalinguistic knowledge) and the consideration of sociolinguistic factors (sociopragmatic

knowledge). As to the scoring method, the study makes use of both qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative method is used in the formative evaluation to gather information about the quality of instruction and students' grasping, while the quantitative method was used in the pre-test and post-test for research purposes and decision making about the course. Further, the required responses in both tests are considered either as 'selected response' or 'limited production response'. That is, the task items require of students either to choose an answer from the given possibilities or to give a response on the basis of what was provided. There is a direct and indirect relationship between input and expected response (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). In this case, there is a direct relation between input and response where certain answers entail information from input but there are also other responses that require students to analyze input and to consult their knowledge in order to get the response, i.e. an indirect relation between input and response (ibid.).

4.4 Results and Discussion

At first, it is crucial to explain the experimental design of the study. Starting with the statistical hypothesis, the study sets two hypotheses. The null hypothesis suggests that the pretest mean equals the post-test mean and thus the treatment has no effect on learners' pragmatic competence. The alternative hypothesis proposes that the post-test mean is higher than the pretest mean which ensures that there is development in learners' pragmatic competence due to the teaching of pragmatic aspects. Statistically speaking,

H_0: Mean $_{pretest}$= Mean$_{post\text{-}test}$

H_A: Mean$_{pretest}$ < Mean$_{post\text{-}test}$

After applying the two tests in due time and in relatively suitable circumstances, the data were collected and analyzed following a quantitative method. Both tests were subject to a

calculation and analysis which are presented below. At first, the pre-test and post-test administered to students show the results as presented on the following table.

Students	Pre-test scores	Post-test scores
1	09	14.5
2	09	14
3	08	15
4	04	06.5
5	09	14
6	10	11
7	09	12.5
8	07	15
9	06	13.5
10	11	13.5
11	06	08
12	09	08
13	07	11
14	07	14.5
15	15	15.5
16	10	13.5
17	05	05.5
18	08	10
19	08	09.5
20	10	11
21	11	13
22	09	13
23	13	17
24	08	09
25	05	06.5
26	06	13
27	07	13.5
28	11	14
29	09	11
30	10	14.5
31	05	11
32	10	09
33	09	13
34	09	10
Total scores	289	403.5

Table 18. Students' scores in pre-test and post-test

Significant differences can be seen in the students' scores in pre-test and post-test. Low scores were obtained in the pre-test by most of students. This seems to be due to students' lack of pragmatic awareness mainly in choosing the appropriate utterances and understanding the conveyed meaning. Approximately, half of students distinguish between formal and informal situations. This implies that students possess an amount of pragmatic knowledge and that the problem lies in the way of applying this knowledge in their linguistic choices and social factors calculation. Also, it can be noticed that most students' performance improved in the post-test due to explicit instruction and practise. Yet, there are few students who have known slight improvement or a decline in comparison to the pre-test scores. This may mean that more training sessions are necessary.

In order to check the result validity, more calculations are provided. The following statistical calculations (mean, variance, standard deviation and T-test) are present on Table 19 below.

	Mean ($\bar{x}$)	V (Variance)	SD (Standard Deviation)	T-test
Pre-test	8.30	5.30	2.33	5.65
Post-test	11.75	8.14	2.86	

Table 19. Statistical description of pre-test and post-test scores.

Starting with the mean **($\bar{x}$)**, it helps to describe clearly the difference between pre-test and post-test as well as the students' entire performance. $\bar{x}$ (x bar) can be obtained by adding all scores with each one multiplied by its frequency, then all are divided on the number of scores (Bachman, 2004). Its formula is:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum Fx}{n}$$

$\Bigg\{$
F: frequency of each score.

x: score.

n: number of scores.

It is obvious that the mean of post-test scores is higher than the mean of the pre-test scores. But there is a need for another statistical indicator to account for this difference. It is the standard deviation (SD) that shows the extent to which the scores are reasonably distributed over the mean or spread over the mean. SD is calculated by the sum of all deviation scores squared, multiplied by its frequency and divided by the number of scores. Searching for estimation to the standard deviation of a population, the sum of deviation scores is divided by the number of scores minus the figure (1). The formula for calculating SD is:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(x - \bar{x})^2}{n - 1}}$$

$\Bigg\{$
x: score.

$\bar{x}$: the mean

n: number of scores.

In order to check whether the obtained standard deviation is reasonable or not, the study utilizes Bachman's (2004) table that lists the normal SD based on the ratio of range scored (p.70). In other words, each standard deviation has a ratio range that equals the subtracting of the highest score from the lowest one than is divided by its SD. The pre-test and post-test range is calculated as follow.

$R_{pre-test}$= 15-4=11/2.33=4.72

$R_{post-test}$= 17-5.5=11.5/2.86=4.02

Referring to Bachman's table (ibid.), the ratio of range of normal distribution is 4.30 for the sample between 30 and 40 (see App I). The range of post-test is nearer to the given value,

that is, its scores are normally distributed and its SD is reasonable, while for the pre-test, where the range is larger than 4.30, the scores are more distributed and not reasonably varied. This supports our first suggestion about the difference in the mean. Further, based on Miller's interpretation (1984), lower SD implies that scores are close to the mean and that they have a low degree of variability whereas high scores have the opposite. The post-test SD, thus, indicates that there is a high degree of variability in scores while the pretest scores show low variability degrees.

It happens that the obtained scores are chancy and are not real. To examine the reality of our hypothesis about the difference in students' pre-test and post-test performance, a T-test indicator is required. In other words, the T-test is used to confirm or refute the two hypotheses. Since, the sample of study is small and the test is classified as a parametric test, a dependent T-test is workable. The T-test formula is

$$t = \frac{\overline{x_1} - \overline{x_2}}{\sqrt{\dfrac{s_1^2 + s_2^2}{n_1}}}$$

S_1 : standard deviation of pretest

S_2 : standard deviation of post-test

n: number of the sample

Referring to the reference table which represents the critical values of T-test for two tailed test on the basis of the degree of freedom (DF=N-1), the sample of thirty two (34) requires a t-test that is equal or greater than the value 2.04 (see App I). So, the obtained T-test is larger than the critical value. This means that the difference between the two tests is real (95%) and not chancy. It implies, also, that the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. This, then, shows that there is a real change in students' pragmatic abilities due to a consciousness-raising approach to teaching.

It can be concluded that formal instruction enhances students' pragmatic abilities in writing abstract mainly in performing the act of 'describing' and 'comparing'.

Conclusion

In the present chapter, a detailed account of the study was presented. The initial point was the identification of subjects and instruments involved in the study. Next, different stages of the proposed methodology were classified with a focus on agriculture discourse community. Further, assessment procedures used in the study were accounted for. Finally, the results were presented, analyzed and interpreted, answering, thus, the research questions asked earlier in the current study.

To assess the agriculture students' pragmatic gaps in writing and to examine the proposed teaching methodology, the present study was carried out on thirty four participants. The first stage was to determine their pragmatic needs *via* a questionnaire that helped to design a pre-test for detecting their pragmatic gap and to specify the items to be taught. After ensuring that subjects lacked the pragmatic knowledge required in writing an abstract, courses were prepared on the basis of their needs, the norms of the scientific discourse community they belong to, and the speech acts findings. The course chose the acts of 'describing' and 'comparing' to be taught, being the most performed acts in abstracts and the ones chosen by students. The same thing can be said of the three sociolinguistic factors included in the course, and which were selected according to the scientific discourse community use.

Explicit and implicit types of teaching were the next stage in the study. Students were taught explicitly the different forms needed to perform the acts and the effect of the three factors, i.e. academic status, relative power, and social distance. To get students involved in the teaching process, different tasks were introduced in the second half of each lesson. Through tasks, students' grasp of the lesson can be checked *via* a formative mode of evaluation. Also, they were

implicitly initiated to the specific uses of forms by their community. In fact, the same tasks employed in the teaching sessions were introduced in the post-test at the end of the course to assess what they have been learning (summative evaluation). That is, students' ability to perform the act of 'describing' and 'comparing' in writing an abstract was measured through a variety of tasks such as discourse completion task (DCT).

The interpretation and analysis of the study findings can be accounted for in relation with two purposes. The first purpose is to prove that there is a lack of pragmatic competence among students. This lack was noticed in the students' responses to the pre-test questions. The study reveals that there are many reasons behind the students' pragmatic deficiency including the lack of the pragmatic component in the previous course, the teaching of general aspects of English, the lack of explicit explanation concerning the practicality of these language aspects, etc. What is more, even students' ignorance and inability to translate what they need exactly resulted in such a situation. Therefore, the introduction of 'speech acts' was considered as a new area for students, as they have not been taught speech act explicitly in relation to their field of interest before. These facts helped in raising students' motivation to study and in improve the test results.

The second and main purpose is related to the adopted methodology. The study findings support Schmidt's (1993) view that the marriage between explicit and implicit types of teaching can raise the students' pragmatic awareness. That is, a consciousness-raising approach to teaching proves to be an effective way of enriching students' pragmatic competence. It is with explicit teaching that students learn how to perform acts and pay attention to what they have as a free pragmatic knowledge. While stocking information in students' mind and making them aware about their discourse community specific use is the function of implicit teaching. As far as assessment is concerned, the face and content validity of the test are thought to have achieved the obtained results. Since the used test serves the objectives set by the study, reflects the entire content of the course, varies the type of tasks employed, makes use of formative types of

assessment and to a lesser extent the summative one to compensate for gaps, the assessment component can be said to satisfy validity requirements (Bachman, 1990; Hudson, 2001; Cohen, 2004). The collaboration among all components from teaching, material and assessment will no doubt lead to the development of the agriculture students' pragmatic competence.

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

A degree of pragmatic sensitivity is a crucial condition for a safe communication (Kasper, 1997). That is, to successfully get his/her message across, one needs to master the way to use pragmatic devices such as politeness markers, contextual clues, cooperative principle, etc. with other skills in encoding his/her intended message appropriately. It is the need for grasping the illocutionary intent that leads to the appearance of pragmatics as a field which studies language in accordance with the speech situation (who said what to whom, when, why, how, where and for what purpose) (Leech, 1983). Previous language studies overemphasized structural analysis of sentences, and any issue that does not satisfy this analysis is sent to the pragmatic 'wastebasket'. Communication was treated only at the structural and semantic level with no consideration of the illocutionary dimension.

It was the work of language philosophers, mainly Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) that drew attention to the three levels of utterance, i.e., locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. They elucidated that an utterance has to be structurally, semantically and pragmatically treated. Therefore, many language teaching issues found answers in the pragmatic 'wastebasket'. Language studies shifted to the study of pragmatics and its aspects, such as speech acts, cooperative principle, presupposition, etc. and to the benefits that would gain from such a new orientation, in particular, language teaching. For instance, some language studies focus on speech act theory and its main sub-areas, namely, the classification of speech acts, direct and indirect SAs, felicity conditions, speech act set, speech events and the like. Other studies discuss the importance of speech act findings in language pedagogy such as the role of speech set in helping learners to know the possible strategies of a certain act. Further, speech act findings were also of a great importance to ESP as it presents to learners the way to perform different acts according to their discourse community norms.

Language studies, then, reached to the view that being pragmatically competent, in addition to other components, ensure for a speaker an understanding of the intended message (Kasper, 1997). As an illustration, mastering the way to perform the act of 'opening' conversation taking into account the specific speech situation features can assure for a speaker to be a good communicator.

Similar to spoken communication, written mode requires also pragmatic competence. In other words, an effective piece of writing implies a good consideration of the intended reader, a skillful use of deictic and referencing expression, politeness markers and an appropriate performance of communicative acts. Effective writing, hence, entails a degree of pragmatic ability. In fact, this ability is more obvious in EST writing. That is, in a case where a writer wants to access successfully to the scientific discourse community, s/he needs to master the way this discourse community assesses sociolinguistic factors, introduces topics, presents new findings, expresses certainty degrees and so on. So, EST writing such as research article is no exception of other written genres in terms of pragmatic competence.

The crucial role of pragmatic competence in writing effective research article abstract is the concern of the present work. The effect of pragmatic deficiency on EST learners' writing was the first research question. A look at what a lack of such an ability may result in, i.e. pragmatic failure, can ensure the pragmatic role in this type of writing. Pragmatic failure refers to speakers' inability to grasp the intended message (Thomas, 1983). It is of two types; pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failure. Both types may, indeed, lead to communication breakdowns and misunderstanding. In EST, for example, failing to understand or to produce the intended meaning according to the scientific discourse community norms may result in unsuccessful interaction.

Pragmatic failure is a serious difficulty that EST learners may face in writing research articles (Troia, 2011, Flowerdew, 2013). EST learners' unsuccessful way of choosing linguistic forms appropriate to given sociolinguistic factors is one of the main causes of ineffective abstract writing.

In order to write a sound abstract, EST learners have to enhance their pragmatic competence. Being able to exploit contextual clues successfully and appropriately and to suppose the intended readers' background correctly, EST learners can write an acceptable abstract and get an easy access to their discourse community mode of writing. The adequate way to develop their pragmatic abilities is the second research question. The answer to this question involves a search for the causes that lead to this failure so as to detect the missing component in learners' pragmatic awareness. Some of these causes have relation with research bodies such as the fact that pragmatic studies focus on some aspects, the neglect of pragmatic aspects in teaching curricula, the lack of materials for teaching pragmatics and others. Other causes stem from the teaching situation, namely, the lack of corrective feedback, the absence of pragmatic training in pre-and-in- service programmes, gaps in learners' linguistic proficiency, etc.

A close glance at these causes, one can realize that they are mostly due to a lack of explicit teaching. Learners' pragmatic deficiency is the result of not having explicitly taught pragmatics. In other words, if learners are explicitly taught the areas where their L1 and L2 meet and differ, they will be pragmatically aware about when to transfer and when not (Kasper, 1997). Here, it is necessary to explain that explicit teaching of pragmatics implies an acquisition by learners of the way their discourse community uses language with a degree of awareness about the goal of teaching (Ellis, 2009). In explicit teaching, learners are informed about the concern of the teaching process before learning these aspects.

The effectiveness of explicit teaching in promoting pragmatic abilities was the subject of many studies (Rose & Kasper, 2001 and others). In many works, learners' pragmatic awareness was raised by means of explicit teaching. Yet, pedagogical experiences prove that learners still lack pragmatic flexibility. It is true that learners develop their pragmatic abilities through explicit teaching but they remain unable to use these abilities smoothly in their production. Schmidt (1993), in his turn, proposes the adoption of task-based teaching of pragmatics in order to raise learners' consciousness. This consists of acquainting them with pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge.

A consciousness-raising approach to teaching adds another component to explicit teaching. It is implicit teaching, a mode of teaching which aims to develop learners' pragmatic flexibility in using pragmatic knowledge. Providing learners with data on the appropriate use of language without making them aware of the teaching aim, the teacher is implicitly teaching pragmatic aspects (Ellis, 2009). Efforts to raise learners' pragmatic competence can be increased by combining the two types of instruction, i.e., explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatics. The two types are complementary. This means that one completes the other in a way that can produce extra energy. It is clear, here, that the approach assigns an active role not only to the teacher but also to learners. The teacher's role is to present the main guidelines while learners have to deduce the specific cases of use through different tasks.

Drawing on these assumptions, the study proposed a methodology for teaching speech acts to EST learners. It aims to suggest a methodology to teach EST learners the ways of performing speech acts appropriately in writing a research article abstract. The participants in the study are thirty-four (34) agriculture 3rd year students at Kasdi Merbah University who are required to write a research abstract in English.

The methodology consists of three main stages. The specification of the content is the first stage. It aims to define the main aspects that have to be taught to this specific group of students. In doing so, certain issues have to be clarified, mainly students' needs, scientific discourse community norms and students' pragmatic gaps. Analyzing the obtained data, the study finds that agriculture students lack pragmatic competence, that is, they are unable to perform acts appropriately in writing abstracts. This situation is due mainly to students' inability to translate what they need exactly, the neglect of pragmatic aspects in their previous courses which focused on general language aspects and the lack of explicit instruction on the practicality and use of these language aspects.

To get more details, scientific abstracts are analyzed in order to extract the most frequently performed functions. Six functions show high frequency rate in most scientific abstracts namely, *describing, classifying, reporting, cause and effect relationship, comparing and calculating.* Two functions are selected to make the content of the course, i.e., 'describing' and 'comparing'. Further, after asking many teachers and observing scientific interaction, we realize that there are three main sociolinguistic factors that affect the scientists' linguistic choice: academic or professional status, relative power and social distance. Considering these findings, lessons on 'describing' and 'comparing' were prepared.

In its second stage, the study intends to draw students' attention to the aim of the teaching phase. Students of agriculture are not only explicitly taught how to act out 'describing' and 'comparing' but they were also informed that they are learning to write an effective abstract. The lesson elucidates the difference between linguistic forms that can be used either in formal or informal situation (pragmalinguistic awareness). It presents also the way of assessing sociolinguistic factors to determine which form to use (sociopragmatic and metapragmatic awareness). In addition, students were taught the rhetorical structure of a scientific abstract together with some expressions employed by their discourse community.

The final stage aims to provide students implicitly with more specific instances used by their discourse community. In this stage, students are required to draw upon their pragmalinguistic, sociopragmatic and metapragmatic awareness to achieve different tasks. In fact, the two stages are related to each other in a sense that a lesson contains explicit explanations and tasks as well.

After implementing the methodological model, it is high time to assess students' pragmatic competence. To measure students' pragmatic awareness, one should know how students are assessed as pragmatically competent or not. The answer to this question requires another prerequisite. A teacher needs to start identifying the purpose of assessment. Such a step depends heavily on whether the focus of teaching is on productive, comprehensive or analytic abilities. The goal of assessment is, accordingly, shaped.

Defining the aim of assessment answers the question of the way students' pragmatic competence is assessed. A teacher who knows the purpose of assessing pragmatic abilities can easily choose the adequate tool to achieve this. Research also confirm that the useful way is to use more than one tool so as to ensure a reliable assessment. The essential point is that a clear purpose implies effective choice of tools.

Students' inability to write effective abstract attracted our attention. Searching for their exact problem, we find that their pragmatic failure is the obvious cause. Put another way, students ignore not only the way to perform functions appropriately but also the role of clues such as who is talking to whom in calculating sociolinguistic factors and even the role of these factors in determining the appropriate form. The only point that most students know is that there are two situations formal and informal. So, the effect of this gap on their writing and the adequate methodology to promote their pragmatic knowledge are the main aims of the study.

By hypothesizing that a combination of two types of instruction under the title of a consciousness-raising approach can raise learners' pragmatic competence with a degree of flexibility, the study implements the methodology on students. Findings related with the first research question showed that pragmatic deficiency affects heavily students' writing especially in exploiting appropriate clues to encode their intended meaning and thus leads to ineffective communication. For example, it is the students' pragmatic incompetency about the specific use of certain verbs that makes them choose verbs randomly and produce unintended message.

Results reveal also that *via* explicit and implicit types of teaching, students' pragmatic awareness is likely to develop to the extent that they are able to analyze pragmatically situations, to calculate sociolinguistic factors, to choose appropriate forms, and to be sensitive to simple pragmatic errors. But, surely more training should be provided to enhance pragmatic competence with high degree of flexibility and sensitivity. Also, it is important to stress the supporting role of linguistic proficiency in ensuring an appropriate use of language (Chaouki, 2007). Pragmatic competence is a necessity for an effective abstract writing in EST which can be developed through a consciousness-raising approach to teaching.

Pedagogical Implications

It is suggested throughout the present work that EST learners will be able to write an effective research article abstract when their pragmatic competence is promoted. To achieve this, the study suggests that EST learners' pragmatic awareness can be better developed *via* explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatic aspects. In relation to these findings, some pedagogical implications are presented below.

It is possible, here, to incorporate other language aspects in the course that have relation to scientific writing such as active and passive voice, tenses, relative clause and others so as to

raise both EST learners' pragmatic awareness and linguistic proficiency. Pragmatic hints should be an essential component in any EST syllabus.

Second, pre-service and in-service programmes need to prepare language teachers for pragmatic teaching and assessment. They will, accordingly, be able to provide corrective feedback about pragmatic errors. Language teachers must be knowledgeable about the methodology of teaching and assessing pragmatics.

For this, the study suggests that the process of teaching will be more pragmatically oriented if the main branches of ESP, namely EST (English for Science and Technology), EBE (English for Business and Economics) and ESS (English for Social Sciences) define those pragmatic aspects needed and design a unified syllabus for each branch to serve the purpose. ESP teachers' role, then, will be to modify, if need be, the content according to the domain they teach. The study may consist, for instance, of ordering all the functions performed in a scientific abstract and to design a course on some of them. So, a teacher who works on English for Chemistry can adopt this course and change the content according to his/her students' needs. That is, the list of functions presented in this study reflects the pragmatic use not only of agriculture domain but of the whole science and technology discourse community.

It is crucial to stress that there are certain pragmatic features which are special to a particular domain (sociolinguistic factors) and cannot be applied to all domains in one branch. In the field of agriculture, for example, it is the writer with high academic and professional status that has the power to present new findings with a degree of certainty. While in another field such as civil engineering, even a novice writer can introduce his/her new design with a degree of certainty. This implies that the two domains may use the same list of linguistic forms in performing the act of 'comparing' but with a change in the order of forms. Hence, with a clear

research background, a well-studied methodology and a rich syllabus, the process of developing EST learners' pragmatic competence is likely to be easier and more enthusiastic.

Further research is, then, needed to explore other domains in EST and other branches so as to set a reliable pragmatic research background. Further, designing a syllabus that contains relevant linguistic, pragmatic, discourse and other components should be addressed in future research. Taking into consideration these implications together with empirical studies in this area will no doubt enrich our understanding of pragmatic issues and the ways they should be taught and assessed.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Criteria for determining functions

Some examples of the performed acts in the abstract of scientific articles with the items used to determine the act performed based on Zimmerman's study (1989):

Acts	Items	Examples
Classifying	To classify To be made of to be composed of to be categorized as to include, to contain a mixture of including	"In recent years,… alternative 'green' measures have been proposed for crop protection, **including** mineral salts, biological agents and plant extracts"(Article 6)
Comparing	More…than Adj+er+than To be similar to Like Differs from in that As adj as	"Similarly, chlorpyrifos, cypermethrin and fenvalerate were found in two soil samples in Balili **higher than** the limit of determination" (Article 1)
Cause and effect	When…, x happen That is why Because Causing	"Hospital records showed no reported cases of pesticide poisoning **due to** improper handling" (Article 1)

	If Due to Results from	
Hypothesis	Perhaps May/may be To seem, to suggest, to appear To be ought to be Can be	"These results **suggest** that all date varieties constitute a good source of natural antioxidants and **could** potentially **be** considered as a functional food" (Article 8)
Defining	To be To be referred to as To be called as That is That/who/which (relative clauses)	"Deglet-nour variety **is** a specific date to the region of Maghreb countries and **is** a climacteric fruit with maturation spread out on the same palm" (Article12)
Exemplifying	For example Such as For instance …..are examples Like, as	"Their preparation are advised for children and pregnant women…to treat diseases **like** the digestive diseases, pulmonary, sterility,…" (Article 25)
Giving evidence	The truth is that There are evidence of this	"For the majority of the studied parameters, Algerian industrial

	Hence, since According to	waste often exceeded the required standards, **since** wastewater has a high organic load, showing in most cases poor biodegradability," (Article 3)
Experimenting	Use of imperative verbs Arrange items chronologically	"We took 'El Gassi' and 'Rhoude El Bagel' fields as fractured reservoirs and 'Hassi Berkin' field as consolidated one. **Then**, we have treated the impact of fractures on assisted oil recovery" (Article 18)
Calculating	A drop, the depth Decrease/ increase to one quarter Quadruple Reduced to Ranged from to Estimate to	"It was found that the inertia terms cannot be neglected in the momentum **equation** of the liquid film, and these differences **increase** as the flow behavior index increases" (Article 30)
Reporting	Use of reporting verbs Use of simple past tense and present perfect.	"The physic-chemical characterization of raw sewage **revealed** that these releases are loaded with organic matter in terms of COD…."(Article 3)

Describing	Use of superlative case	"Results showed that a
	Compound nouns	**significant** increase in mean
	Very, too, so	diameter of inhibition zone with
	Adjectives ending with -ed	**increasing extract**
	and –ing	**concentration** of all solvent
	Use of adjectives	except n-butanol"(Article 9)
Predicting	Nearly	"However, one can **anticipate**
	Usually	that using the artificial
	To believe, to tend to, to	insemination, the reproduction
	anticipate	efficiency can be improved in
	Would be, will	addition to some essential
	Had predicted	measurements related to the
	if	caprine breeding organization
		system" (Article 11)

Appendix B

Needs Analysis Sheet

Dear learners,

 Would you please answer the following questions by putting a cross (X) in the appropriate box:

Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐

Age: …

Specialty:……………

1/ Do you feel that English is important in Agriculture?

☐ Yes ☐ No

Section I: previous learning situation

2/ Do you feel that what you study in English reflects your needs?

☐ Yes ☐ No

 3/ Do you think that one English session per week is enough?

☐ Yes ☐ No

4/ Which of the following areas did you study before?

 Grammar ☐ Vocabulary ☐ both ☐

Specify if there are others…………………………….....................................

………………………………………………………………………………….

5/ Which of the following skills did you study before?

Speaking and Listening ☐ Writing and Reading ☐

6/ What was the technique used in the previous English session?

☐ Pair work   ☐ Group work

☐ Individual work   ☐ Whole class

Section II: learners' needs

7/ What do you need English for?

a- To write correct sentences   ☐

b- To learn how to communicate   ☐

c- Both   ☐

8/ Which skills are the most needed?

☐ Speaking and writing   ☐ Listening and Reading

9/ Which of the following language areas do you need to learn in order to communicate?

☐ Form (Grammar rules)   ☐ Both

☐ Functions (e.g. acts of communication)

10/ How often do you write in English?

☐ Very often   ☐ Sometimes   ☐ Rarely

11/ Where do you need to write in English?

☐ In class   ☐ Web   ☐ Both

Specify other contexts………………………………………………………………….

………………………………………………………………………………………

12/ Which of the following functions do you think is/are necessary in writing the abstract? (In writing abstract which of the following functions you lack knowledge about?) (choose two functions)

☐ Describing   ☐ Classifying   ☐ Reporting

☐ Cause & effect   ☐ Comparing   ☐ Calculating

Section III: the preferred learning technique

13/ What is your useful technique to learn?

☐ Pair then whole class work   ☐ Individual then whole class work

☐ Group then whole class work

14/ What is your preferred learning style?

☐ Auditory style (listening) ☐ Visual style (watching)

☐ Kinesthetic style (physical activity)

15/ Do you like to know more about functions?

☐ Yes   ☐ No

Thank you

Lesson 1 : Comparing

Appendix C

The lessons handouts

Comparing: to see how things are similar and different

1/ Comparative of adjectives

 - Short adjectives : adjective + er+ than

   e.g. : Drop irrigation is harder than flood irrigation.

 - Long adjective : more (+)   than

                     As (=)   + adjective +   as

                     Less (-)   than

   e.g.: Drop irrigation is more expensive than other types of irrigation.

   The bee is as active as the ant

   The salinity of the groundwater is less important in rooting than the level of groundwater.

2/ Comparing clauses

i/ Informal situation:

> You challenged your colleagues on which milk has more powerful protective system: bovine or camel milk. After searching you find that camel milk is more powerful. So, you can answer by:

 - Camel milk has **more** powerful protective system **than** bovine milk.
 - **If you compare between** camel and bovine milk, camel milk is **more powerful**
 - **There is no way** camel milk has **more** powerful protective system **than** bovine milk.

Lesson 1 : Comparing

> **I do not see how you can talk about** camel milk and bovine milk**.**

You are asked to compare between palm groves in Hassi ben Abedallah-Ouargla & Sidi Khouiled-Ouargla and to write an abstract about this comparison.

Difference:

> After observing both areas we realized that **there is no comparison between** Hassi ben Abedallah palm groves & Sidi Khouiled .

> **Our assessment of the area is that** Sidi Khouiled palm groves are **far inferior to** the palm groves in Hassi ben Abedallah. (Or are **superior to**)

> **All in all,** the palm groves in Sidi Khouiled are **less** organized **than** the ones in Hassi ben Abedallah. (or more organized than)

> **In comparison with/ compared with** palm groves in Sidi Khouiled, the ones in Hassi Ben Abedallah are **more** organized

> Groves in Hassi Ben Abedallah **differ from** those in Sidi Khouiled **in that** they are **more** organized.

> Palm groves in Hassi Ben Abedallah are **so wide** that one of them would **equal** two small ones in Sidi Khouiled.

Similarity:

> Types of dates cultivated in both areas **are similar.**

> Types of dates in Hassi Ben Abedallah **resemble** those cultivated in Sidi Khouiled.

> **Like** dates in Sidi Khouiled, those in Hassi Ben Abedallah are **very/too** soft.

> Dates in Sidi Khouiled are **as soft as** those in Hassi Ben Abedallah

Lesson 1 : Comparing

Task:

Situation: you are asked to provide an abstract to your teacher basing on the given pictures. Complete the following part of the abstract that compares between two samples of soil. (Use the adjective *firm: hard to break down)*

Sample of soil A   Sample of soil B

Answer:

It was found that

……………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………

2/ Explain your use of certain form in terms of factors (status, power and social distance.)

Choosing a form from a situation……

Because   - Academic/professional status: lower ⟷ higher

- Power :low → high

- Social distance: close ⟷ distant

Answer keys:

1/ It was found that the two samples of soil differ, in that A is firmer than B.

Or, it was found that the sample of soil A is firmer in comparison with the sample of soil B.

2/ Choosing a form from formal situation

Because the abstract is directed to the teacher, that is

Academic status: lower ⟵————✗➤ higher

Power: low ⟵——✗➤ high

Social distance: close ⟵——✗➤ distant

Lesson 2 : Describing

Describing: means to mention a number of things or features about the described item. The act of describing can be expressed by the means of phrases 'be described as' or 'be characterized as' or 'be featured as'.

Ways used in describing:

1/ Superlative of adjectives

> Short adjectives : adjective + est

  e.g.: Flood irrigation is the easiest method of irrigation.

> Long adjective : the most+ adjective

  e.g.: The most effective method of irrigation is the flood method.

- **Use 'too, very, so' to set the appropriate description**

  e.g.: It is *too* difficult to detect the type of plant diseases.

- **Use adjectives**

  e.g.: crops protection plays an *important* role in ensuring flood security.

- **Use adjectives that ends with –ed and –ing**

  e.g.: We studied the impact of hydroedaphic environment on root systems of the Deglet Noor date palm in the *date-producing* areas of Ouargla.

- **Use of much, major, main, few, little, central, great, significant, considerable, etc.**

  e.g.: The development of renewable sources is attracting *much* attention.

  e.g.: The electric coasts are the *major* components of the total hydrogen production coast.

- **Use of compound adjectives (Noun+ Noun or Gerund+ Noun)**

  e.g.: Three major *vegetable producing communities* were selected as study sites

Task:

1/Read the following two utterances and decide which one is used to describe

1. As a result, natural sources unspoiled by human population are still clean.

2. The result shows that the products of beauty are used by young

    people who have a living level that is medium.

2/ Rewrite the utterance you do not understand.

Answer keys:

1/ Both utterances are used to describe results. But the second utterance is more

descriptive.

2/The second utterance can be rewritten by reordering the adjectives as follows:

  The results show that **the beauty products** are used by young people who have

a medium living level.

Appendix D

The rhetorical structure of scientific abstract

The rhetorical structure of scientific abstract together with some expressions usually used in each part is presented below:

The scientific abstract consists of:

Part A: some background information that introduces the topic.

Part P: is the purpose or goal of the study. It can be expressed by:

- The study aims at

- The aim/purpose of the study is to

- The study focuses on

- The objective(s) of this work is/are

- In this study ….. is discussed

- The focus of the study is on

Part M: refers to the method used in the study. Among the expressions used in this part are:

- X was used/ selected to evaluate/to calculate

- By using x, we evaluate

- The result was investigated by using

- The result will be measured using

- Based on …., we evaluate /analyze/measure/examine

- To analyze/ evaluate ….., we make use of

Part R: presents the results obtained from the study. Below are some expressions used to introduce results:

- X was found

- The results/the experimental results reveal/show/indicate that

- Compared with the previous studies, the study findings show that

- The obtained result (s) is/are

- It was found that

- As a result,

Part C: summarizes the conclusion drawn from the study and recommendations. It can expressed by:

- In conclusion,

- Finally,

- The analysis demonstrate (s) that

- It is recommended that

- It is suggested that

- These result(s) suggest(s) that

- One can anticipate that

- The result(s) indicate (s) that X are promising area for practical research

Appendix E

Pretest

Exercise 1: (4pts)

Classify the following situations and utterances as formal (F) (where you need to use language carefully) or informal (IF) (where you use language without paying much attention to your choice):

1) You want to participate in an online survey about a comparison between bovine and camel milk (…).

2) You want to describe to one of your colleagues how to carry out an experiment (…).

3) "There is no way camel milk has more powerful protective system than bovine milk" (…).

4) "Two main methods have been employed in conserving pollen. The obtained result shows that the field conservation method is the most effective one" (…).

I)   Comparing

**   i)Comprehension**

Exercise 2: (4pts)

After comparing between the process of making vinegar from dry dates and semi-dry ones, the researcher writes the following utterance. Read it and choose from the given possibilities the meaning of this utterance ☐

"There is no comparison between making vinegar from dry dates and semi-dry ones"

a) Making vinegar from dry dates is inferior to that made from semi-dry ones.

b) The two types are good

c) Making vinegar from dry dates is superior to that made from semi-dry ones.

2/ Underline the device that has helped you to select the appropriate meaning.

Exercise 3: (4pts)

Look at the table and express comparison by using the given data

Data: (adj: high/low)

The PH degree of the groundwater	Area1	Area 2
	6.71	7.83

Answer:

The PH degree of the groundwater in area….. is…………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………….

i) **Describing**

   i)Comprehension

Exercise4: (4pts)

The following passage describes a study about the use of the date palm products. Read it and fill the table below with the necessary information.

"In the Sahara area, the use of products of the date palm has a great importance in various fields. The study aims to diagnose the use of the product of date palm in traditional medicine and cosmetic in the region of Ouargla. The result reveals that traditional medicine is still used especially among old people and housewives." (Baba Hani et al., 2011, p.1) (Adapted)

Setting	Topic	Purpose	Result

Exercise 05: (4pts)

Look at the picture and describe the features of the sample used in the study (use the information from the table)

	The soil of explored area
Color	brown
Consistence	Loose: breaks apart when held
Texture	Silky, that is, it is made of medium sized pieces

Description:

The soil sample is characterized by …………………………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………………………………

<center># Appendix F</center>

<center># Task-based teaching</center>

Different tasks were designed to provide students with opportunities to practise what they have learned. Some of these tasks are presented here.[1]

Task 1

The Effect of Irrigation with the Alluvial Groundwater on the Soil of Palm-grove of Guerrara.

The objective of this work is the contribution to the study of the effect of irrigation with water from the alluvial groundwater on the soil of the old palm-grove of Guerrara. It is an alluvial soil formed of fine materials carried by wadi Zegrir, during its occasional floods through this grove.

In this context, four sites inside the palm-grove were selected and inside each one a soil profile has been achieved by digging. In addition, we extract a soil sampling after each irrigation process and from the water wells at each site, to be subsequently analyzed in the laboratory. The structural and analytical study of the soil shows that it is generally weakly to moderately salt soils (non-irrigated), and moderately to heavily salt soils for irrigated soils. The soil is slightly alkali, with medium percentage of calcium, with low to medium levels of organic matter and with low levels of gypsum. The physical-chemical analysis of irrigation water shows that it contains a high percentage of salt. Also, it reveals that the soil in this area has a neutral pH, with an overall chlorine, calcium, sulfate, and magnesium chemical sign. The analytical study of soil and irrigation water as well as the study of interactions between them confirm that the irrigation of soil by that water is not a big problem for the soil on condition to have a good driving irrigation with respected doses and frequency of watering, allowing the leaching of soluble salts in depth.

---

[1] Agricultural data were adapted from different sources.

I) Read the abstract and answer the following questions.

1/ Divide the abstract into its parts.

2/ Set the place of irrigated and non-irrigated water on the rate of salt line

|_____|_____|

    Weak   moderate   heavy
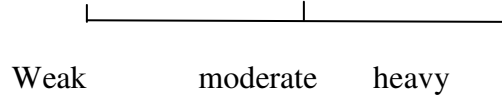
3/ Compare the two types of soil starting by

The percentage of salt in irrigated soil………………………………….

4/ Replace the expressions in italics in the following sentences with expressions from the text which have the same meaning:

➤ *In this study* the effect of alluvial irrigation water on the irrigated soil *is discussed.*

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

➤ A soil should have an irrigation process *that is well derived in terms of dosage and watering.*

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

➤ The soil samples were analyzed *time after time.*

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………..…………………………

Task 2:

1/ Compare the two varieties of tomato (ZAHRA and POLANA) in terms of their productivity (use the adjective *productive*)

Though the two varieties were infected by *Tuta absoluta,* ZAHRA differs from POLANA ………………………………………………………………………………………………………..

Task 3:

Read the study well and set the comparison between the two varieties of wheat (whether =, <, >).

Carioca response to water stre**ss** **……** Vitron response to water stre**ss**

2/ Express this comparison

The study of the responses of two varieties of wheat (carioca and vitron) found that Carioca response …………………………………………………………………………………………………..

……………………………………………………………………………………………………….

Task 4:

Complete the following utterances by selecting an appropriate adjective from the box:

productive, great, infectious, significant, slow, fast.

1/ The Lussan variety is distinguished from other varieties with its……………growth.

2/ Zahra variety was characterized by a ………….number of leaves.

3/ The 4th month of planting was the most…………..period for all varieties.

4/ The appearance of *Tuta absoluta* results in ………damage for greenhouses production.

5/ Two varieties of tomato are recorded as the most …………varieties of fruits.

6/ The results reveal that water stress caused a …………..reduction in the number of leaves.

Task 5:

Fill in the gaps using the following relative pronouns to have more appropriate description (why, whose, who, which):

1/ Farmers…….lack knowledge about pathology can have great crop losses.

2/ Ecological studies are a very important subject ……provides information on how the disease affects the organism.

3/ Researchers know the journalist…….article talks about pathology.

4/ Scientists can modify disease-resistant forms of plants, the reason ……..hereditary information is of a great value in agriculture.

5/ In the conference, scientists discussed the problem of planter ……ignore the effect of plant diseases.

Task 6:

Complete the following utterances with the given relative pronouns (which, why, when, that or when). Then, reorder them to write the complete abstract:

1/ The present study aims to search for the Arabian camels features …..make them differ from other families.

2/ First, findings reports that Arabian camels can walk even in times……the temperature is more than 50c°.

3/ It is widely known that Arabian camels live in the desert……..there is a little supply of food and water.

4/In fact, they can keep their body temperature constant, the reason……..they can live without water for a long time.

5/ As a conclusion, Arabian camels have particular features…… make them endure such a harsh climate.

Appendix G

I)Comparing[1]

i)Comprehension

Exercise 1: (5pts)

Read the following utterance and answer the questions

Situation: it is a part of an abstract that was provided by controller to the national agriculture office. He writes

"The comparison between six varieties of tomato reveals that some varieties are more productive than others even if they are infected."

1/ What is the function performed in this passage?

   a) Describing   ☐

   b) Comparing   ☐

2/ Can this utterance be performed in formal or informal situation? Decide according to these factors:

The interlocutor is (to)…………………….that is

          Professional status: lower ⟷ higher

          Power: low ⟷ high

          Social distance: close ⟷ distant

---

[1] These titles were not used in the tests given to students.

The situation is …………………….

3/ Choose which of these possibilities can mean the same as the above passage ☐

a) *Some varieties of tomato differ from others in that the latter are less fruitful ;*

b) *Some varieties of tomato diverge from others in that they are more productive ;*

c) *Some varieties of tomato resemble others in that they are all productive.*

ii)Production

Exercise 2: (5pts)

Look at the following pictures which show the results of a study about the impact of two extracts (garlic and basil) on protecting tomato from T.absoluta. Picture 1 points to the crops from the non-treated greenhouse. While Picture 2 presents the result in the treated greenhouse.

Picture 1: Crops of the non-treated greenhouse   Picture2: Crops of the treated greenhouse

1/ Compare between the two pictures using the adjective **fresh**

The tomatoes in the treated greenhouse are………..

……………………………………………………………………...................................

2/ Rewrite the comparison with the adjective **infected.**

The tomatoes in the non-treated greenhouse are …………………………………………………

………

i)Comprehension

Exercise 3: (5pts)

Read the following passage and answer the questions

"The study of the Spiruling behaviours is the key to ensure the smooth running of its cultivation outside its natural environment which is the aim of our work"

1/ What is the function performed in this passage?

a) Describing ⬚

b) Comparing ⬚

2/ Justify your answer (how do you know that it is a or b?) …...

………………………………………………………………………………………………………...

3/ Does this act concern: purpose, method, or result? Justify

………

……….

ii)Production

Exercise 4: (5pts)

Provide an answer to each part and collect them together to write an abstract.

Part I: (adj position)

Rewrite the utterance by inserting the adjective "*great*" in the appropriate place

"Camel colostrum presents interest for camel calves, nomads and southern populations."

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………….(a)

Part II: (adj order)

Read the two utterances and provide that is missing in utterance (b) to get the result of the study:

$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{i)}\quad\text{The camel colostrums' protective system distinguishes it from the bovine milk.}\\[1em]\text{ii)}\quad\text{Its protective system is more powerful.}\end{array}\right.$

The camel colostrum has …………………………………distinguishes it from the bovine milk.

(b)

Part III: (Describing purpose)

Rewrite the purpose of the study using an appropriate structure.

Purpose: to investigate the characteristics of camel colostrums.

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………(c)

Part IIII: (Describing method)

 Rewrite the method used in the study using an appropriate structure.

Method: Physico-Chemical analysis.

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………….(d)

Abstract: (rhetorical order)

Reorder the letters (a to d) to have the whole abstract

Start by: a-

Appendix H

Key answers

This appendix presents the possible key answers to questions in the pretest, different tasks, and post-test.

Pretest key answers

Exercise 1: 1) F, 2) IF, 3) IF, 4) F.

Exercise 2:

1/ C, 2/ the device is the expression 'there is no comparison' which implies that one is better than another.

Exercise 3:

The PH degree of the groundwater in area1 is lower than PH in area 2/ area 2 is higher than area1.

Exercise 4:

Setting: the region of Ouargla. Topic: the use of palm date products. Purpose: to investigate the use of date palm products in traditional medicine and cosmetic. Result: the date palm products are still used in traditional medicine.
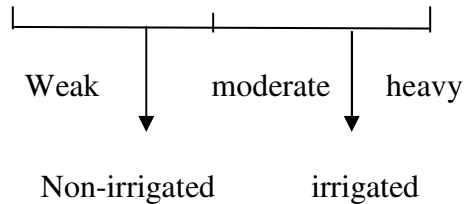
Exercise 5:

The soil sample is characterized by its brown color, its loose consistence as it breaks apart when held and its silky texture, that is, it is made of medium sized pieces.

Different tasks key answers

1/Parts of abstract: <u>Purpose:</u> 'the objective…grove', <u>Method:</u> 'in this context…laboratory', <u>Result:</u> 'the structural…depth'.

2/

```
  └──────────┴──────────┘
   Weak      moderate │ heavy
        │             │
        ▼             ▼
   Non-irrigated   irrigated
```

3/The comparison: The percentage of salt in irrigated soil differs from that in the non-irrigated one, in that the rate in the former is heavier than that in the latter. Or, the rate in non-irrigated soil is weaker compared with that in the irrigated one

4/ The replaced expressions:

1) The aim/objective of this work is to study the effect of alluvial irrigated water on the irrigated soil.
2) A soil should have a good driving irrigation with respected dosage and frequency of water.
3) The soil samples were analyzed subsequently.

Task 2:

1/ Though the two varieties were infected by *Tuta absoluta,* ZAHRA differs from POLANA in its resistance and productivity. ZAHRA is more productive than POLANA variety.

Task3:

1/ Carioca response to water stre**ss** **=**   Vitron response to water stress

2/ The study of the responses of two varieties of wheat (carioca and vitron) found that Carioca response resembles Vitron response/ Carioca is as affected as Vitron variety/ both responses are identical.

Task 4:

1/ Fast, 2/ significant, 3/ infectious, 4/ great, 5/ productive, 6/ slow.

Task 5:

1/who, 2/which, 3/whose, 4/why, 5/ when.

Task 6:

1) Relative pronouns: 1/ that, 2/ when, 3/ where, 4/ why, 5/which.

2) Order: 3-1-2-4-5.

Post-test key answers

Exercise 1:

1/Comparing, 2/ the interlocutor is the national agriculture office, that is, professional status: higher, power: high, social distance: distant. Situation is formal. 3/b

Exercise 2:

1/ The tomatoes in the treated greenhouse are fresher than those in the non-treated greenhouses.

2/ The tomatoes in the non-treated greenhouse are more infected than those in the treated greenhouses.

1/Describing, 2/it is describing as there is a description of the study purpose with the use of adjectives such as smooth running, key, etc.

3/ It is concerned with the purpose of the study which can be deduced from the expression 'which is the aim of our work'.

Part I: Camel colostrum presents *a great* interest for camel calves, nomads and southern populations. (a)

Part II: The camel colostrum has more powerful protective system which distinguishes it from the bovine milk. (b)

Part III: The study aims at investigating the characteristics of camel colostrums/ the focus of the study is on investigating the characteristics of camel colostrums.(c)

Part IIII: By using the physico-chemical analysis, the features of camel colostrums can be detected./ The physico-chemical analysis is used to determine the camel colostrums features.(d)

Abstract: a-c-d-b.

Appendix I

Critical values of t test

degrees of freedom	significance level					
	20%	10%	5%	2%	1%	0·1%
1	3·078	6·314	12·706	31·821	63·657	636·619
2	1·886	2·920	4·303	6·965	9·925	31·598
3	1·638	2·353	3·182	4·541	5·841	12·941
4	1·533	2·132	2·776	3·747	4·604	8·610
5	1·476	2·015	2·571	3·365	4·032	6·859
6	1·440	1·943	2·447	3·143	3·707	5·959
7	1·415	1·895	2·365	2·998	3·499	5·405
8	1·397	1·860	2·306	2·896	3·355	5·041
9	1·383	1·833	2·262	2·821	3·250	4·781
10	1·372	1·812	2·228	2·764	3·169	4·587
11	1·363	1·796	2·201	2·718	3·106	4·437
12	1·356	1·782	2·179	2·681	3·055	4·318
13	1·350	1·771	2·160	2·650	3·012	4·221
14	1·345	1·761	2·145	2·624	2·977	4·140
15	1·341	1·753	2·131	2·602	2·947	4·073
16	1·337	1·746	2·120	2·583	2·921	4·015
17	1·333	1·740	2·110	2·567	2·898	3·965
18	1·330	1·734	2·101	2·552	2·878	3·922
19	1·328	1·729	2·093	2·539	2·861	3·883
20	1·325	1·725	2·086	2·528	2·845	3·850
21	1·323	1·721	2·080	2·518	2·831	3·819
22	1·321	1·717	2·074	2·508	2·819	3·792
23	1·319	1·714	2·069	2·500	2·807	3·767
24	1·318	1·711	2·064	2·492	2·797	3·745
25	1·316	1·708	2·060	2·485	2·787	3·725
26	1·315	1·706	2·056	2·479	2·779	3·707
27	1·314	1·703	2·052	2·473	2·771	3·690
28	1·313	1·701	2·048	2·467	2·763	3·674
29	1·311	1·699	2·043	2·462	2·756	3·659
30	1·310	1·697	2·042	2·457	2·750	3·646
40	1·303	1·684	2·021	2·423	2·704	3·551
60	1·296	1·671	2·000	2·390	2·660	3·460
120	1·289	1·658	1·980	2·158	2·617	3·373
∞	1·282	1·645	1·960	2·326	2·576	3·291

N	Range/S	N	Range/S	N	Range/S
5	2.3	40	4.3	400	5.9
10	3.1	50	4.5	500	6.1
15	3.5	100	5.0	700	6.3
20	3.7	200	5.5	1000	6.5

Table A9: Approximate ratios of range to SD for different sample sizes (Batchman, 2004, p. 70)

ملـخص الـبـحث

بينت العديد من الدراسات الميدانية أن الكفاءة السياقية للطالب لها دور مهم في الاستعمال السليم للغة الانجليزية وفي التواصل الناجح سواء كان كتابيا أو لفظيا. تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى معرفة أثر غياب الكفاءة السياقية على طريقة كتابة طلبة العلوم الزراعية لملخص الدراسة. وعلى إيجاد طريقة ناجعة تمكن من تطوير هذه الكفاءة.

بعد الاطلاع على البحث، توصلنا إلى أن تطبيق المنهجية المقترحة من شأنه أن يزيد من وعي الطلبة بالعناصر السياقية من خلال نمطي التدريس المباشر و الضمني لتطوير مهاراتهم السياقية في كتابة ملخص بحوثهم العلمية، وتتكون هذه المنهجية من ثلاث مراحل: المرحلة الأولى تهدف إلى تحديد مضمون الدرس و ذلك بمراعاة حاجيات الطلبة والتي تم استنباطها من خلال استبيان وزع عليهم وبمعرفة المبادئ التي تحكم المجموعة التي ينتمي إليها طلبة العلوم الزراعية. أما المرحلة الثانية وتتمثّل في تقديم حصص التدريس وهي عملية تدريس المباشر الذي يهدف إلى رفع وعي الطلبة بالعناصر السياقية. أما المرحلة الأخيرة فتتمثل في التدريس الضمني لمبادئ مجموعة الخطاب العلمي التي ينتمي إليها هؤلاء الطلبة و ذلك عن طريق إجراء بعض التطبيقات التي تساعد على ترقية مهارات الطلبة في التحليل السياقي. وفيما يخص تقييم الكفاءة السياقية، ركزت الدراسة على الإتجاه الذي يرى أن وضوح هدف التقييم يساعد كثيراً في اختيار الأداة المناسبة لهذه العملية.

وبعد تطبيق هذا النموذج على طلبة العلوم الزراعية بجامعة قاصدي مرباح –ورقلة ، تبين أن هذه الفئة من الطلبة تفتقد إلى الكفاءة السياقية في الكتابة الأمر الذي يؤثر سلبا على طريقة تواصلهم و اندماجهم في المجموعة الخطابية العلمية. كما أثبتت هذه النتائج أن منهجية التدريس المقترحة لعملية الحوار و رفع الوعي ساعدت في تحسين الكفاءة السياقية لدى طلبة العلوم الزراعية في كتابة ملخصاتهم.

وعلى ضوء هذه النتائج، توصى الدراسة بتدريس العناصر السياقية كعنصر أساسي كغيره من الميزات النحوية والخطابية في تعليم الإنجليزية كلغة الاختصاص و خاصة في تعليم كيفية الكتابة بصفة عامة وكتابة ملخصات المقالات العلمية بصفة خاصة.